

THE LONDON REVIEW

OF

Politics, Society, Literature, Art, & Science.

No. 241.—VOL. X.]

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 11, 1865.

[PRICE 4d.
Stamped 5d.

REVIEW OF POLITICS.
The Queen's Speech.
Belligerent Rights at Sea.
Mr. Rumble and the "Rappahannock."
The London Dressmaking Company.
The Church and the Bar.
Judicial Interruptions.
The Right Pronunciation of Greek.
The Report of the Patent Law Commission.

Breach of Promise.
"Extract of Meat."
THE CHURCH:—
The Unity of Christendom.
Liturgical Reform.
FINE ARTS:—
The British Institution.
Music.
The London Theatres.

SCIENCE:—
Ethnological Society.
MONEY AND COMMERCE:—
Commercial Law.
REVIEWS OF BOOKS:—
The Reform Bill of 1832.
German Rationalism.
Evenings in Arcadia.

New Novels.
Paupers and Criminals.
Scientific Periodicals.
Short Notices.
Shakespeare in Germany.
Literary Gossip.
List of New Publications for the Week.

REVIEW OF POLITICS.

ON Tuesday last the Session of Parliament was opened, the Queen's Speech was delivered by the Lord Chancellor, and after a short discussion in each House the customary addresses in reply to the royal message were adopted. It is scarcely necessary to say an additional word about the proceedings on the first night of the legislative year. Nothing could well be tamer, flatter, or more uninteresting. In neither House was any speech delivered which throws any light on the prospects of the Session, or affords any clue to the probable tactics of parties. Lord Palmerston and Mr. Disraeli preserved a judicious silence—each no doubt anxious to gain the advantage of replying to the other, and neither having anything particular to say on his own account. In the upper House the leaders on both sides did indeed speak, but Lord Derby and Lord Granville confined themselves to good-humoured "chaff" and compliment, while Lord Russell's brief account of our relations with the Federal States, and of our want of relations with Brazil, told us little or nothing that we did not know before. If indeed we could suppose that the noble earl never said anything without having a definite purpose, or without being incited to say it without a sufficient cause, we should be compelled to regard with some anxiety his pointed reference to the absurd claims made by the Northerners in respect to the ravages upon their commerce committed by the *Alabama*. There was not the slightest necessity to refer to the topic; and if our present foreign secretary were as judicious and reserved as he ought to be, the only inference we could draw from his voluntarily introducing the subject would be, that Mr. SEWARD had been lately pressing it upon his attention in a disagreeable, not to say a forcible, manner. But then we know the noble lord too well to attach much importance to his casual utterances. In all likelihood, he had no other reason for alluding to the matter than because its introduction gave him the opportunity of striking an attitude as a firm and resolute foreign minister, and of filling out his speech to decent dimensions. Apart from this incident, there was really nothing worthy of notice in what are by courtesy entitled to be called the debates on the Address. A discussion on the wrongs and grievances of Ireland, is all very well in its way. We know that in the natural course of things we must go through more than one in the course of the session. But we are scarcely prepared to plunge at once into so uninviting a subject, still less to accept a rambling conversation, in which Mr. Scully, Mr. Magnire, and Sir R. Peel are the principal spokesmen, as a substitute for that general discussion of the foreign and domestic policy of the empire to which we have been accustomed to look forward on the first night of the session. It

is true that there is nothing very much to be said on foreign affairs. Earl Russell has apparently taken a complete holiday during the recess, to the great advantage of the country. It is not the policy of the opposition to make any marked demonstration, or any premature disclosure of tactics on the eve of a dissolution. The Ministry could not be expected, after all that has taken place, to press the subject of Parliamentary reform upon the attention of the House. But we confess to some surprise that no independent Liberal of weight or influence should have risen to whisper the dreaded word in the ears of a moribund House. The occasion was certainly an appropriate one for reminding both the House and the Government of the pledges which they had taken and had not fulfilled. However, for some reason or other, it was not seized, and, no doubt, Lord Palmerston will interpret the circumstance in his own way. How far he is justified in doing so will be seen in the course of the next few months. But for the present we can only record the fact that the last session of the present Parliament has been opened without a single word of remonstrance being uttered against the manner in which it is proposed to close it, without any substantial effort to accomplish the task which it was elected to perform.

The people of Turin have disgraced themselves in the eyes both of the rest of Italy and of Europe by their recent conduct towards Victor Emmanuel. His late government were, no doubt, deeply to blame for the manner in which they allowed the convention with France to transpire without any clear information as to its character and purport. They are still more to blame for the inadequate measures which they took for preserving the peace of the city in September last. The Parliament may have committed an error—though we do not think they did—in acceding the other day to the proposition of Ricasoli to let bygones be bygones. But let that be as it may. Italy is a constitutional kingdom, and the King is responsible for none of these things. The Turinese ought not to have forgotten all that he is to Italy, and all that he has done for her. Ordinary gratitude and common justice should have restrained them from insulting their monarch on account of faults committed by his advisers and by the representatives of the nation. It is said that the tumultuous gatherings and the indecent demonstrations which have just taken place were prompted by the agents of the reactionary and of the Mazzinian parties. But we fear that the citizens generally were not free from complicity in outrages, which have pained all the true friends of Italy, and have given infinite pleasure to her enemies. We are glad that the King at once took the dignified course of quitting a city which has proved itself unworthy of the affection which he had always displayed towards it. It is with still greater satisfaction we have received intelligence of the

manner in which he was received in every other Italian city through which he passed on his way to Florence, and also in Florence itself. Even the Piedmontese provinces are understood to regard with disgust the conduct of the inhabitants of Turin, and to share the satisfaction felt by the rest of Italy at the transfer of the capital. There is, therefore, not the slightest ground for fearing any serious disturbance of the peace and tranquillity of the kingdom. The only result of the recent riot will be to deprive Turin of the sympathy which she would otherwise have received under the losses inflicted upon her by the removal of the seat of government. It is sad to be obliged to say it of those who have heretofore deserved well of Italy; but it is nevertheless clear that a narrow municipal spirit—a selfish regard for their local interests—has for a time dimmed the patriotism of the people of Turin. There is nothing, however, in what has taken place which need occasion any alarm or misgiving to the friends of Italian unity.

Austria and Prussia have not yet succeeded in coming to an understanding with respect to the provinces they have wrested from Denmark. The cabinet of Berlin is still determined to resist any settlement which does not give Prussia a virtual control over Slesvig and Holstein. The cabinet of Vienna is equally determined not to assent to the aggrandizement of the northern power without receiving a *quid pro quo*. As to the character of this *quid pro quo* there are different accounts, none of them of a reliable character. In the meantime we hear that the Emperor Louis Napoleon has given M. von Bismarck to understand that he hopes due attention will be paid to the wishes of the different nationalities; and that he would be well pleased if the northern part of Slesvig, which is essentially Danish, were restored to Denmark. Even a statesman so headstrong as the Prussian premier will scarcely treat with indifference such an intimation, if it has really been given. Not, indeed, that we imagine for a moment he will relinquish his hold on any part of the conquered territory. But it may incline him to allow the Duchies at least an ostensible independence, and to rely mainly for control over their government upon the influence which Prussia must necessarily derive from her geographical relation to them. If we may believe the *Kreuz Zeitung*, moderation was never less in the thoughts of King William and his advisers. That journal, which represents an influential party at Court, openly advocates the virtual absorption of the smaller north German states by Prussia. It already talks of embodying their contingents in the Prussian army, and those whose thoughts it utters are no doubt speculating on the great things it will be possible to accomplish with such a military force, and with the powerful fleet which the government have just announced their intention to create. But there are probably limits even to German submission. M. von Bismarck has hitherto been a fortunate man, and in his way he has proved himself able. Still there are some enterprises which are beyond his strength. We have not the slightest fear that he will succeed in consolidating North Germany into a Prussian empire ruled by a military despotism. Both France and Austria would look with the utmost jealousy upon any such aggrandizement of an enemy or rival. And although the Prussian people and parliament have hitherto submitted quietly enough to M. von Bismarck's sway, it would seem that he has at last become conscious that there is some danger, or at least some inconvenience in his present position. We do not know how far the bill with respect to the organisation of the army, which has just been introduced by the Minister of War, may meet the views of the Chamber of Deputies. But after the language we have heard from the King himself, and from different members of his Government, it is not unimportant to receive from the Minister an admission that all army reforms should be effected on a parliamentary basis.

The Canadian courts have decided that Lieut. Burley, the leader of the Vermont raiders, shall be given up to the Government of the Federal States. We are glad they have been able to see their way to this conclusion. There cannot be two opinions as to the shameful way in which the Confederates have abused the hospitality they received in Canada, nor can anyone wish to shelter them from the consequences of an enterprise, unquestionably undertaken with a view to embroil England with the Northern republic. Whatever may be our sympathy with the Southerners, we cannot for a moment connive at any attempt on their

part to render our policy of neutrality no longer tenable. The interests and the duty of England are our main concern; and nothing can to our minds be clearer than that it is not our interest to assist either party in this civil war, and that it is contrary to our duty to leave our territory to become the basis of hostile operation. If the Federals are capable of listening to reason, they must by this time be ashamed of the diatribes in which they indulged against the Canadians and the Canadian Government. The latter are certainly doing everything they can to fulfil their international obligations. The Attorney-General has just introduced a bill into Parliament for the prevention of frontier outrages, for the seizure and examination of suspected vessels, and for ejecting from the country persons who have proved themselves unworthy of colonial hospitality. The Governor-General has, at the same time, recommended that a sum of money should be voted in order to replace that which was stolen by the Confederate raiders from the St. Albans bank. We entirely approve of these measures. They may be misinterpreted in the Northern States, and attributed to fear. But we ought not to let any consideration of that kind influence us. Let us do what is right as between nation and nation; and then, if fight we must, we shall be able to do so with a good conscience and as a united people.

There is no military news of any importance from America. It is stated that a portion of General Thomas's army has joined General Grant, and that Sherman is also on the point of being heavily reinforced. Neither of these commanders has, however, made any recent movement, although, if we may trust the prevalent rumours, they are maturing simultaneous attacks upon Charleston, Richmond, and Wilmington. The Confederates, no doubt, are not inactive on their side, but we have no information as to what they are doing beyond this, that they have taken energetic measures to concentrate an army to oppose Sherman. Indeed, so far as we can judge, the tendency is on both sides to concentrate and to limit the area of war. In all probability, the interest of the campaign will be almost entirely confined to the conflict between great armies massed in Virginia and in North or South Carolina. Operations at a distance from the main seat of war will most likely be confined to small corps, and will be of comparatively slight importance. In the meantime it is evident that the Confederates have not lost courage under the series of disasters which they have lately suffered. They have planned and carried out (though with only partial success) a naval attack upon the Federal flotilla in the James River. In the appointment of General Lee to be commander-in-chief of all their armies they have taken a step of the greatest importance, and one which promises to be attended with good results. Mr. Davis has not been fortunate in many of the operations which he is understood to have inspired; and undoubtedly his choice of generals has more than once proved disastrous. The whole country will repose in General Lee a confidence which we have no doubt will be justified by the result. Under his guidance the Southerners will be stirred to new exertions, and will cheerfully make any sacrifices which he may deem necessary. At present they are as little inclined for submission as they were when their prospects seemed brightest. Any informal negotiations for peace which may have recently taken place are now at an end. Their result has been to convince Mr. Blair—the supposed emissary of Mr. Lincoln—that the Confederates will not treat upon any other basis than the recognition of their independence.

THE QUEEN'S SPEECH.

MODERN Whiggism, after its fashion, is going to die game. Its end is not, indeed, to be exactly heroic; its fall will not be that of the martyr or the warrior; it waves no banner, it grasps no blade, it shouts no gathering battle-cry. But the elderly annuitant, who has been feeble and ailing all her life—who has subsisted on wings of chickens and daily carriage airings—who has maintained an establishment of half-a-dozen servants to minister only to her proper attendance—who has never helped another and never denied herself, astonishes at last the physicians with her unquenchable vitality, and almost wins admiration by the persistence of her conviction to the very end, that the universe was made in order to provide her little comforts. So the Whig Government, which has held office for

a quarter of a century on the principle of doing nothing that was not forced upon it, expires in this session of 1865 with a murmured *laissez faire* on its lips. And so Lord Palmerston, who has completed his half century of administration without ever originating a measure, or standing by a principle that was not popular, concludes his career with a recommendation to the State to build its Law Courts between Carey-street and the Strand! As the fruit of experience beyond the average of mortals, the concentrated result of observation on the British Constitution, the wise deductions from a broad study of mankind through the Foreign Office and the Treasury since Napoleon fell, this veteran statesman spends his last breath in an entreaty that his countrymen shall extend the equitable jurisdiction of the County Courts in cases of small amount. Were these great objects effected, there would remain but one crowning glory for England to achieve. Is it possible that Lord Palmerston shall live to see these ideas adopted by the Legislature, and in the very same session to behold the Patent Laws amended and another expurgatory Act of obsolete statutes passed? Might this but be, he will have seen all he longs for. Two other measures, indeed, he has prevailed on the Crown to recommend—a bill for altering the laws of poor relief, and another for reforming public schools. But these stand on the recommendation of Committees of the House of Commons, and might probably be carried into effect without the weight of the personal authority of the great Whig leader. And, indeed, the expurgatory statute belongs rather to the office of the Lord Chancellor's draughtsmen than to that of the head of her Majesty's Government. So let us fix our venerating eyes on those peculiar reforms which the Ministry, through its chief, declares to be all that England wants, and which secured, he will only pray to depart in peace. New Law Courts, a little extension of County Court Jurisdiction, and amended Patent Laws! Happy the country that has no history, but surely happier the people who have reached perfect institutions in every point but these; and thrice happy that Minister who passes away from a lifetime of office in the persuasion that nothing more than these are needed for the nation he has ruled so long.

But if we look abroad at England's station in the world, is there not an equal reason for self-gratulation? Do we not, in three places at once, disprove the assertion made by an older veteran, that "England cannot afford little wars?" Have we not, as our Government tells us, prosecuted with distinguished success, since Parliament separated and left the Executive to pursue the path of glory unrestrained, some of the very smallest wars that have ever been recorded? A war with Japan would, in the days when we had statesmen, have seemed almost too slight a thing to deserve notice from Royal lips; but in this year of grace we draw satisfaction from the lofty announcement that "the diplomatic agents and the naval commanders of Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, and the United States of North America, undertook a combined operation" for the purpose of chastising a single rebel lord in that island. So a declaration that her Majesty had been obliged to employ her forces in India "to obtain satisfaction for the past and security for the future," is worded in a style so inappropriately magniloquent that it led to rumours of a new Sepoy rebellion, only quelled by Lord Granville's assurance that nothing more was meant than the insignificant expedition to Bhootan, which few but inveterate readers of every column of the Indian intelligence had in this country known to be in progress. Unhappily, that character does not apply to the third "little war" in which we are involved. Everybody knows that we are at war with the natives of New Zealand; everybody knows that it costs us 10,000 British troops, or an annual charge of a million and a half; everybody is ashamed of it, angry at it, weary of it! The policy of her Majesty's Government in this matter has hitherto escaped condemnation because it has escaped inquiry; but the presumption lies heavily against a system which has brought us to look to the extermination of the finest race, physically and morally, we have yet taken under our protection—which secures our success only by attacking them on Sundays, on which days the religion we have taught them forbids them to fight, and which has as yet, by these means, done no more than obtain the submission of a few among the "savages." In these circumstances, no common boldness is that which in the British House of Peers claims this as a "successful effort" of her Majesty's forces, and which adds that those who are still in arms, and whom her Majesty's forces have been unable to subdue, "have been informed of the equitable conditions on which their submission would be accepted." Yet the audacity of meanness for which her Majesty's Government demand applause at the antipodes is surpassed by the effrontery of imbecility with which it dares

to refer to interests nearer home. Could it be credited, without being seen, that those who egged on Denmark to resistance—who counselled her to retire only to a strong point where English sympathy would become active aid—who bade her fight, and then left her to fight alone—who called a Conference to mediate, and then upbraided her for demanding the terms we had declared just and reasonable—who boasted of English "opinion" and "moral force," and then admitted that we dared not lift a sword unless France stood by our side—that these men would have the courage to speak of Denmark's fate? Such courage, however, her Majesty's Government possess. It is at least a courage which none will envy them, and which we may trust no future English Government will ever emulate—the courage of men who have sense neither of honour nor of shame—the courage of the unabashed brow and craven soul, that calmly and coolly refers to the truce when it shrank from a friend in peril, and bore with resignation the open contumely of a foe.

So, consistent in self-seeking and self-contentment to the very last, the soul of pure Whiggery passes away. It has reached now that beatific state in which it withdraws itself from observation of external objects, and concentrates its faculties in inward contemplation. It has no longer sight for the events of the world; the birth-cry of a new creation fades in its ear into a languid hum of ancient commonplaces; the agony of social revolution strikes it as a discomfort to be assuaged by new law courts, and the giving of equity jurisdiction to the county judges. It is time it were gathered to its fathers, with the close of the political career of the astute leader who has guided it so long. For the nation has weighty work before it, which the easy old formulas of a Royal Speech have no words to speak of. That people for whose welfare and happiness the Royal solicitude prays, in language so strangely earnest, and so dissonant from the tone of all the rest that it enforces the conviction that it came straight from the Royal heart, and was not devised by the Royal Minister, is not the people that the Whigs were wont to evoke to save themselves from loss of office. It is a people that does not now break out in riot, as before the Reform Bill; that does not now agitate for impracticable objects, as before the Charter fell out of sight. But neither is it a people that is ignorant, or indifferent, or solely bent on the satisfaction of its animal desires. Day by day it treads on the heels of the best educated in the land; day by day it asserts silently its overwhelming power; day by day it summons before the tribunal of its opinion the statesmen who presume to act in its name. Already it is supreme, for its bitterest opponents confess that they cannot stand before its force. But at the same time it is irresponsible, for the Constitution lays the duty of acting on but a small section of the body. This is the fact that we have to deal with—the peril that we have to remove. To place those who hold the power in their hands where they shall feel the solemn responsibility that it involves—to call into the councils of action those by whose will all action is directed—to teach self-restraint and self-guidance—by that practice which alone can effectually teach,—to those who, on all great questions, are irresistible already, this is the great task that lies before our statesmen of the future. We cannot bid the stream of time roll backwards, and bring us again the England of our youth, when but a few among her population were intelligent, and therefore but a few were worthy to govern. We must take the England of our day and of our sons' day—the England of railways, and telegraphs, and universal penny papers—the England in which public events, at home or abroad, warm the interest of millions whom as yet the Constitution does not acknowledge—the England which public opinion rules, but in which public opinion is the voice of the people, and not merely of the Houses of Parliament. This is the England to which the Queen, when she meets her new Parliament, will speak—the England for which her Ministers, when Lord Palmerston has ceased to hold the seals, will have to legislate. For the moment it is patient and still; but who can predict what will rouse its wrath? For the moment it is busy and occupied; but who can tell when it will find that its patience has been abused and its indifference taken advantage of? Always, too, it is considerate of past services, and reverent, perhaps beyond safe limits, of age. But these are noble qualities, which it were wise not to tax too heavily. For one session more they will make the Premier's authority secure, and his duties easy as his conscience. But another Parliament will not be guided by mere admiration for veteran jocularity, or sympathy with impressive good humour. The Royal Speech of 1865 is the last that will be constructed on the *dolce far niente* theory of government. As it stands, it will remain the significant expression of what Whiggery left to itself can come to—and its epitaph.

"BELLIGERENT RIGHTS AT SEA."

WITHOUT naming this REVIEW, the *Times* of the 3rd instant devotes three columns to a letter by "Historicus," in answer to our article which appeared on the 21st ultimo under the above title. In that article we ventured some strictures on the law as laid down in a previous letter by the same writer, on what we alleged to be his misapplication of the authority he cited in favour of his view of the law, and on the too evident *animus* of hostility against the Confederate Government, as displayed in the insulting tone of his comments. In this second letter, "Historicus" does not venture to defend the applicability of his citation of Lord Stowell's authority, and we presume, therefore, that he concedes that point to us: he defends his *animus* by asserting his impartiality: and he reasserts his original view, and supports it with a moderation of language which contrasts favourably with his first letter. But this second letter, whether considered as a fair answer to our article or as an essay in support of his original conclusion, is a failure. It exhibits either the weakness of the advocate or the untenable character of his position. Since "Historicus" is the writer, we need hardly say that we attribute the failure to the latter cause. In the character of an advocate he is right in not venturing to defend his citation of the authority of Lord Stowell, and in attacking our conclusion without stating our argument; but we maintain that, in a controversy on such a question, he should at least have stated our conclusion, either in our own language, or, if he thought himself—as no doubt he is—able to put our conclusion more vigorously and pointedly in his own language than in ours, he should have done so fairly, and without attributing to us anything which we never said, either explicitly or implicitly. If we show that he has done this, we think we shall show that even as an advocate he has committed an imprudence. "Historicus" says:—

"The boldest and most singular of all the justifications (i.e., of Mr. Benjamin's instructions to Confederate cruisers) which have been attempted is, perhaps, that which has been hazarded by a writer who asserts that the intervention of a Prize Court in questions of prize as between neutrals and belligerents is a matter of form and not of substance; and that the belligerent may, if he chooses, at any time dispense with the action of the Prize Court, and settle the question in dispute by the direct diplomatic action of the two Governments. . . . If, in refuting such a theory, I should seem to be enunciating elementary truisms, my excuse must be that so capital an error has not been found incapable of acceptance."

Now, we never said what we have marked by italics, nor even anything like it. If "Historicus" will either quote our words to that effect or name the other writer whom he was answering, and whose error had not been found incapable of acceptance, our charge of imprudence falls to the ground. We make no heavier charge than that of imprudence, because we do not in fact attribute the error to anything more than inadvertence, but it is an inadvertence which lowers the high value of the writer's otherwise skilful treatment of the question *as an advocate*, i.e., of a man who argues one side of a case, and, properly for his purpose, omits what it would be inconvenient to introduce, or impossible to answer fully and explicitly. Thus we do not blame "Historicus" for not defending his citation of a passage in Lord Stowell's judgment in the case of the *Felicity* as an authority in favour of his view, but which we had explained in another sense, nor for omitting all reference to the far more pointed and applicable *dictum* of that judge which we quoted, and which, without fully establishing our view of the perfect legality of Mr. Benjamin's instructions, showed their entire coincidence with the opinion of Lord Stowell in a single exceptional case which was brought before him.

We perceive and acknowledge that "Historicus," considered as an advocate of his own views, fairly and properly omitted all reference to these two points—for an advocate is not expected to acknowledge an error on his own side, nor to admit that an argument he is unable to meet is to the point, or unanswerable; but he commits an error *as an advocate* if he misstates his adversary's contention, for, when this is ascertained, it raises the natural presumption that he was unable to meet what was, in point of fact, the adverse contention.

The point in dispute between "Historicus" and ourselves is one of great importance, now that the case of a belligerent without an open port into which to carry prizes made by her cruisers has actually happened. It is a point which, ruled according to the view of "Historicus," might any day eventuate in war between this country and the Confederate States. It is a point worthy the attention of statesmen and legists. We should much like that some one of even more ability than "Historicus" would take up and support his side. We should like to see stronger arguments, if they can be produced, than

his, and we should like to see this well done by some one who, neither from inadvertence nor a mistaken sense of the temporary advantage, would misstate our contention, nor feel himself too weak to do justice to whatever of argument or authority we had advanced against his view. For want of such an adversary we proceed to answer "Historicus."

The case is this:—The Confederate Government has cruisers at sea, but no open port into which to carry prizes for adjudication, nor consequently any Prize Courts. It is admitted that Confederate cruisers may burn or otherwise destroy enemy's ships and cargoes. But it is often doubtful whether ship and cargo is hostile or neutral, the enemy naturally endeavouring to assume the character of neutrality. Under these circumstances Mr. Benjamin instructs the Naval Department that the national cruisers are to dismiss a ship which asserts itself to be neutral, if they entertain any reasonable doubt of its hostile character; but that if they entertain no reasonable doubt that the character of neutrality is simulated, they are to act as if it were really what they believe it to be—hostile.

"Historicus" maintained that the only proper answer to these instructions would be to confiscate, or, if need were, to send to the bottom at once any cruiser of the Confederate States which attempted to carry them out, and he only thinks it worth while to notice our view that they are in accordance with the law of nations, because it has, much to his wonder, been found not "incapable of acceptance." We think we may presume that this "acceptance" has been, if not general, at least pretty wide, from the circumstance that "Historicus" has devoted his abilities, and the *Times* three columns of its space, to an attempt at refuting it.

The case in question is that of a conflict between the sovereign belligerent right of capturing at sea enemy's property, and the mode of adjudicating on any neutral claim that it was neutral and not hostile. If "Historicus" is right, the Confederates cannot touch an enemy's ship at sea in the most apparently flagrant case of simulation, for it is always possible that he may be dealing with a neutral ship, and, having no Prize Courts, he cannot in any case do this. For the right of neutrals, to be judged by the Prize Courts of the belligerent, is, according to "Historicus," absolute. Their claim and their right is not only that justice shall be done, but that it shall be done in one particular way. If it cannot be done in that way, the belligerent cannot act at sea against the enemy at all, and must give up all right of capture even of the enemy's ships and cargoes, abstraction made of the well-nigh impossible case of the absolute certainty that they are enemy's property.

According to "Historicus," the same end—in this case the end of doing justice to neutrals—must always be pursued by the same means; and if those means cease to exist, no other ones, although consonant with reason or first principles, can be employed. It would clearly be possible to do, and to do more speedily, the same justice as is now done by the belligerent if there be a failure of justice in his Prize Courts, or if the property captured have been accidentally destroyed, or has perished owing to its own perishable nature. But no. The method is as sacred as the end, and in the conflict between the belligerent right of capturing enemy's property, and the hitherto existing method of reconciling this right with the rights of neutrals, the method is to prevail against the right, although the right of the neutral may be preserved by another method of procedure, and so the rights of all parties be preserved.

And this is not the *dictum* of some peddling attorney on a miserable point of pleading which he only half understands, but of a great civilian on a conflict of rights under the Law of Nations.

This extraordinary view is attempted to be supported by "Historicus" by the authority of a passage in the "Answer to the Prussian Memorial on Neutral Ships," drawn up by Lord Mansfield. In his citation of this authority, we observe that "Historicus" has not seen fit to follow the advice we before took the liberty of tendering to him. He has not *weighed the words and the circumstances* of the case. The "answer" was called forth by the refusal of the King of Prussia to recognise our Prize Courts as the proper courts to decide in the first instance on the legality of the captures of Prussian ships made by our cruisers, and by his proceeding at once to reprisals. Has "Historicus" read that answer through? and in reading it did he remember that the object was to answer a pretence that Prize Courts were of *no authority*, and that where they could and did exist in active operation, reprisals were to be made without waiting for their action? It being the object to show the legality of these courts, "Historicus" advances a long quotation, in which a single sentence, if it could be believed

that the object was to show that no other mode of doing justice could exist, would seem (but only at first sight) to be *to the point*, but still would not be of much *weight*. After speaking of Prize Courts as an "established method of determination whether the capture be or be not lawful prize," and describing the Prize Court as the "proper and regular" court for the decision of such cases, the draftsman of the answer (Lord Mansfield) adds:—"Any other method of trial would be manifestly unjust, absurd, and impracticable." Now, this is somewhat oratorical, and though it is rather on our side than on that of "Historicus," we cannot give much weight to it. We know that Lord Mansfield, like Lord Denman, "Historicus," and some other great men, was sometimes oratorical. The meaning of it, as "Historicus" will see if he reads the document through and acquaints himself with its drift, is that it would be manifestly unjust, &c., *to the belligerent sovereign* whose right of capture and judgment by his own Prize Courts was being called in question. The question was one of *reprisals*, without waiting to see whether the Courts, or, if they failed, the Prince would do justice to a neutral. We will, at the risk of being prolix, compare the *dicta* of "Historicus" about "at once" sending ships to the bottom, and about the absurdity of appealing to first principles, with the following extract from the "Answer":—"The Law of Nations, founded upon justice, equity, convenience, and the reason of the thing, does not allow of reprisals (*i.e.*, of sending offending cruisers to the bottom, *inter alia*) except in case of violent injuries, directed or supported by the State, and justice absolutely denied in *re minimè dubiā*, by all the tribunals, and afterwards by the Prince."

We could with equal cogency point out how utterly inapplicable, and if applicable in some measure, how weak are the two other citations made by "Historicus" from Lord Stowell's judgment in the case of the *Flad Oyen*, and from Kent's "Commentaries." In our previous article we pointed out that Lord Stowell had once before him the case of a captured ship, which, from reasons founded not on the *impossibility* of bringing it before a Court (as is the case with prizes made by Confederate cruisers), but on the advantage (*viz.*, watching the motions of an enemy's cruiser) to accrue to the captor of following another course, was, as a matter of fact, not brought in for adjudication, but, being *prima facie* enemy's property, was destroyed. In this case, Lord Stowell in effect said, "If it be enemy's property, destroy: if it be neutral, you cannot justify the act to the neutral owner, but you can to the neutral sovereign by making just compensation. After this, "Historicus" will not make much way by showing that Lord Stowell expressed himself strongly against a belligerent's pretending that his consuls in *neutral territory* could perform the functions of a Prize Court. If the Confederates were to put forward such a pretension, we should have either to condemn it, or to get over the authority of Lord Stowell, which we have not now to do. As to the citation from Kent, we fully agree with that great authority (as cited by "Historicus") that the adjudication by a Prize Court is a "salutary rule;" but when we find the application of the salutary rule to be impossible, we go to "justice, equity, convenience, and the reason of the thing." In the endeavour to apply first principles to a new case we look out for the most parallel cases as decided by the most recognised authorities, and we find Lord Stowell on our side in the view we have taken in this matter between "Historicus" and ourselves. If we go to Kent, we find that the citation of him by "Historicus" is inapplicable; but, going to Kent, "than whom there is no greater authority" (*vide* the last letter of "Historicus"), we find that great lawyer also on our side. "Sometimes" (he says, in his "Commentaries," vol. i. p. 115, tenth edition) "circumstances will not permit property captured at sea to be sent into port, and the captors, in such cases, may either destroy it, or permit the original owner to ransom it." The meaning of this probably is—for we have read the context—not that the captor *has the right*, but that he may, *as a matter of fact*, destroy or put to ransom. Kent then goes on to discuss questions arising out of ransom, but does not further discuss the alternative of destruction, which he thus tacitly admits as permissible if "circumstances will not permit" bringing into port.

We think we have said enough to show that Mr. Benjamin's instructions are not "insane;" that if they are not conformable, as we believe them to be, to public law, the proper answer is not to "confiscate, or, if need be, to send any cruiser which acts on them at once to the bottom;" that in so novel a question it is proper to appeal to justice, equity, and the reason of things—*i.e.*, to first principles; and that the weight of both reason and authority is in favour of our view, that those portions of the instructions which we have commented on

are not qualifiable as illegal. We believe not only that our views have "not been found incapable of acceptance," but that they have been very generally accepted as sound by competent judges, and that it is a pretty general opinion that "Historicus," in his answer, which we are now noticing, to our original strictures, has suppressed our argument, has not noticed our authorities, has misstated our conclusion, and has so eluded the difficulties of the subject, instead of grappling with them.

He makes a feeble effort at the close of his letter to win a cheer, as one might say, by humbly pleading, as a reason for his not having given satisfaction to the partisans of either belligerent, that he is nothing but an Englishman and a lawyer. We fail to perceive the pertinency of his nationality to the question in dispute, and in treating it, and his views on it, have never considered for a moment whether he was an Englishman or a Dutchman. As to his being a lawyer, we fully admit that his reputation gives him a title to be heard; but we regret to observe that of the two characters open to a lawyer—that of the advocate and the judge—he has in this little passage at arms used the weapons of the former rather than the impassive impartiality of the latter. In using the arts of the advocate, he has neither managed to conceal his bias, nor to captivate the sympathies of his audience, nor even to arrest the conviction of the jury, whose verdict, we believe, went against him before we were heard in reply. If he should be inclined once more to appeal against the general finding of the public, we would counsel him to begin by at once throwing overboard his own impulsive over-statements of his own case. The instructions may turn out to be, when fully considered, open to the charge of illegality. We think they are not—but are not so rash as to swear by our own view until we have heard the other side of the question ably argued. But these instructions are certainly not "insane," and, whether they are illegal or insane, it is not a case for violent remedies or reprisals until the Confederate Government has, for cause shown, refused to withdraw them. Next, we would venture to advise that in any further attempt he should not misstate our contention, nor entirely suppress our argument and authorities. If he again venture on this course, which raises a prejudice against that side of the question which we wish to see fairly argued against us, we shall not think it worth while to notice his rejoinder, but shall leave it, as perhaps we might have done his second letter, to the enlightened appreciation of the public and of the profession.

MR. RUMBLE AND THE "RAPPAHANNOCK."

FEDERALS and Confederates have, against our will, made such ample use of us in their warfare, that neither has any right to complain if the other mans a ship or arms a regiment with sailors of British birth or rifles of British manufacture. Which has profited most by their violation of our neutrality we have not the means of determining, nor are we concerned to press this question, believing, as we do, that both have done what they could to turn our supplies of men or materials to their own account. Considering the greater facilities which the Federals have enjoyed in this respect, they certainly have no right to urge against us the fact that a Confederate cruiser has been built in an English ship-yard, or been in part manned by English seamen. But an act of this nature becomes serious if it can be shown that our Government has in any way been cognizant of its perpetration, and has omitted to take the measures it would in such a case be bound to take in order to prevent it. The people of the Northern States believe that her Majesty's Ministers have not discharged their duty in this respect. That belief is one of the main causes of their irritation against this country; and though we should be very far indeed from considering that any action on the part of the Executive should be taken in deference to the angry remonstrances of the American public, yet when it was rumoured that an officer in one of the Queen's dockyards had enlisted seamen for the purpose of manning a ship which was to act as a Confederate cruiser, it became essential for our own honour that the charge should be sifted before a court of justice. The Government acted promptly in bringing it to this test, and, by their prosecution of Mr. Rumble, have left the Americans no ground of complaint. Whether the verdict of the jury which has acquitted him is equally satisfactory, is a question upon which considerable doubt may be entertained.

In the month of November, 1863, the gun-boat *Victor* was sold by the Admiralty to Messrs. Gordon, Coleman, & Co., and, after all her warlike fittings, with her masts, sails, and rigging, had been taken out of her, she was delivered to that firm, and rechristened the *Scylla*. Practically, though this was unknown to the vendors, her real purchaser was Mr. Zachary

Pearson, who, there can be no doubt, bought the vessel in order to sell her again to Confederate agents. It is equally certain that she was to be employed in the service of the Southern States; but, to cover that destination until she could get away to sea, it was given out that she was being prepared for a voyage to China, and her equipment for this purpose proceeded from the 10th up to the 24th of November. It seems to be the practice of the dockyard authorities at Sheerness to allow the workmen of the dockyard to be employed in refitting vessels sold by the Admiralty, and thus it came to pass that Mr. Rumble was daily on board the *Scylla*, superintending the work of her equipment. It is certain that he also took an active part in engaging men to man the vessel. If we could believe the witnesses, whom he helped to engage, there could be no doubt whatever that he was at this time well aware of the *Scylla's* true destination. But here the over-zeal of the Federal agents has defeated their own end. No doubtful voters at a closely-contested election were ever kept loyal to their candidate by more barefaced treating than were the witnesses in question up to the date of the trial. They were held in hand, as the Lord Chief Justice said, by "unlimited extravagant debauchery." The evidence of such witnesses could not with any propriety be relied upon, and had the case against him rested solely on their testimony, Mr. Rumble might claim not only a legal but a moral acquittal.

But it stands upon other, and much more solid grounds. On the afternoon of the 4th of November the *Scylla* started upon what was given out as her trial trip, but as soon as she reached Calais her true character was declared. A Confederate captain came on board and took command of her, the Confederate flag was hoisted, the *Scylla* was renamed the *Rappahannock*, and the men who had been engaged by Mr. Rumble for fourteen days were invited to join the service. It is from this point that Mr. Rumble's conduct is not only liable to the severest censure, but leaves him open to the suspicion that he had from the beginning some knowledge of the ship's ultimate destination. His duty, when she had shown her true colours, and when he found her under the command of a Confederate officer, was clear. He had both his own honour, and, what should have been dearer to him, the honour of the Government he served, to vindicate; and if he had really been imposed upon and led to believe that the *Scylla* was to be engaged in the opium service, he should at once have protested against the trick which had been played upon him, and washed his hands of any further participation in what he now knew to be a most gross violation of the laws of his country. But he did nothing of the kind. He went on engaging boiler-makers, and not merely sent them, but took them to Calais, and induced them to work on the ship. It is true that for what he did at Calais he is not legally responsible; but, as the Lord Chief Justice observed, "it throws light upon what was his understanding and intent in the earlier part of the transaction." It is, indeed, difficult to reconcile his conduct at Calais with the theory of his innocence while the *Victor* was moored in the Thames. The natural inference is that the same intent influenced him throughout his dealings with the ship, and that in fitting her for the Confederates at Calais he continued a service which he had commenced to render at Sheerness, knowing from the beginning for what object the ship was being equipped. The jury were not of this opinion; but we regret to say that they showed an eagerness to acquit the defendant which, in a case of such importance, was, to say the least, unseemly. The case was not by any means so free from doubt as to entitle them to decide and to express their decision before the judge's summing-up. And that juryman who urged that counsel should consider on what hard seats he and his brother jurors were sitting, and shorten their arguments, may be a good hand at a bad joke, but very ill understood the responsible duty he had been called upon to perform.

We cannot say that we are satisfied with the result of this trial. Except so far as the conduct of the Government is concerned, it is open to grave objections upon both sides. The Lord Chief Justice hoped, for the credit of the country, that O'Kelly, the man who kept the witnesses for the prosecution together by treating of the most shameful and debauched character, was not a British subject. Even if he was not, the credit of the country is not much relieved by getting rid of him while so many British subjects were shown to have accepted his bribes, and to have done their best by giving false evidence to earn them. Of Mr. Rumble's indiscretion we have spoken already. But if he was indiscreet so also was his counsel. Mr. Bovill described the prosecution as one in which the real prosecutors were the Federal Government. He said that our own Government depended entirely on Federal agents who would not let a witness appear who could say anything in

Mr. Rumble's favour. We regret that an English advocate should, even in his zeal for his client, have cast such a slur upon the Government of his country as to represent it as a cat's-paw in the hands of a foreign Government. There is a twofold accusation in this assertion. It alleges both that the law officers of the Crown have, in bringing the prosecution, acted in deference to the demands of the Federal agents, and that they have not exerted themselves to redress a violation of the law, but have left that duty wholly to the care of strangers. No one here will believe either of these charges, and possibly Mr. Bovill himself only made them in order to awaken in the minds of the jury the prejudice of nationality in favour of his client. The trick was successful in the hands of Mr. Edwin James when he defended Dr. Bernard at the Old Bailey, and it may not have been without effect in helping Mr. Rumble out of his difficulty. But Mr. Bovill ought not to have stooped to it. The case was of far too high an importance to have prejudice imported into it, and Mr. Rumble's conduct too open to suspicion to leave any doubt that the prosecution was one which the Government was bound to institute.

THE LONDON DRESSMAKING COMPANY.

Is it an evil or a good thing that individuality seems to be dying out among us? Whatever may be the judgment formed on the subject, the fact appears, nevertheless, certain. We hear a great deal now-a-days of Conservative reaction—the Conservatives, however, neglecting to inform us whether they think public opinion likely to react in favour of penal laws against the Roman Catholics, Rotten Boroughs, General Warrants, and the Test Act. But a much more striking reaction is, to our mind, taking place in the commercial world. We are very apt to sneer at the old City companies, with their banquets and their barbaric pomp of banners and beadles; and there are even critics cynical enough to treat such revivals of activity as have lately taken place at Painters' and Coachmakers' Hall as mere galvanic disturbance of an irrevocably dead past. But we forget the purposes for which these old companies were established, and are ungrateful for the benefits they have conferred on the middle classes. The Trade Guilds of England and the Continent were the strongest and very nearly the sole protection of the peaceable and industrious citizen against the despotic monarch or the rapacious baron. King John would tear out the teeth of an individual Jew, or squeeze an individual jeweller; but the case was different when he had to deal with an incorporated body of Goldsmiths. Isaac of York (Limited), and with a Deed of Association duly registered under the Companies' Act, might have defied the suasion of Saracen dentists; and so intuitively did our mediæval sovereigns seem to acknowledge this, that knowing the balance of public opinion was on their side, as to the very idea of a joint-stock company of Jews being fraught with immeasurable danger to the body politic, they obviated the possible peril by banishing the children of Israel from the kingdom altogether. But the force of events rendered them powerless to prevent the Goldsmiths and the Merchant Tailors, the Skinners, the Cordwainers, and the Fishmongers, from banding themselves together. Our kings were always in want of money, and the Goldsmiths would occasionally advance them a few thousand pieces. They were fond of good living, and the Fishmongers were always glad to ask them to dinner. The system was one of mutual conciliation. The old guilds were, in the first instance, strictly commercial organizations—trades' unions, in fact. They grew to be parts of the municipality, and as they became fonder of pageantry and conviviality, they lost many of their business attributes. But from the halls of the old companies came the great trading bodies of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The merchant adventurers—the Turkey, the African, and, later, the South Sea, the East India, the York Buildings, and the Hudson Bay Companies—were only guilds of business men, who agreed to carry on their transactions in a co-partnership, but, being of a cheery and a hearty turn, built handsome houses for corporate purposes, and gave good dinners. Within the last few years, a strong feeling against guilds and companies—even for purely joint-stock companies—has manifested itself. The panic of 1825 and the mania of 1845 may have had something to do with this; but there is no doubt that between the great railway year and the passing of the Limited Liability Act, companies, as a rule, were looked upon with distrust and suspicion. "Anglo-Bengalee" and "West Diddlesex" were jokes in the general mouth. Besides, the popular feeling engendered by what, in the days of the Reform Bill, used to be called "the march of intellect," set in very strongly in favour of individual as against combined exertion. "The

pursuit of knowledge under difficulties," admirably modernized by Mr. Samuel Smiles into "self-help," fired the imagination and braced the energies of a generation who had sat at the feet of Birkbeck and Harry Brougham, and took in the *Penny Magazine*. The "self-made man" was the hero of the age. The millionaire, who boasted of having come, as a boy from the ploughtail, on foot to London, with one shilling and ninepence in his pocket, was looked upon as a kind of demigod. Under the impetus given to individual exertion by political and educational reform, there can be no doubt that our national prosperity has enormously increased. We owe our cotton lords to the "march of intellect;" but for mechanics' institutes, it is probable that we should have had fewer Agamemnons of commoners of the Frank Crossley, the Titus Salt, the Brassey, the Charles Fox type.

A curious reaction has, however, become apparent since the legalization of limited liability. By degrees an uneasy feeling grew up in the public mind that the successful individual, when he had acquired his millions, was very apt to become a despot after the approved legal type; and that the cotton lord, the giant manufacturer, the colossal employer of labour, the *exploiteur de l'homme par l'homme*, possesses many characteristics in common with the barons of old. Lord Shaftesbury, Mr. Thomas Hughes, and the Committee of Ladies who are so commendably exerting themselves on behalf of the London Dressmaking Company (Limited), would be probably very much surprised to learn that the organization they are fostering is, abstractedly, quite as mediaeval an institution as the Company of Pewterers or Bowyers, or Fleschers or Barber-Surgeons. In ancient times admission to these guilds was not so fenced about by restrictions and by expense as it is now. When all the City lay between Temple Bar and Cripplegate everybody was a citizen, and took up his freedom for a few shillings as a matter of course. Modern observances will only demand from the citizen who seeks to be free of the Guild of Milliners and Dressmakers testimonials as to industry and good character; and modern policy will, while looking strictly after the interests of those affiliated to the guild, scrupulously refrain from interfering with individual enterprise and fair competition. Thus the Baron Front de Bœuf, or Philip de Malvoisin, or Madame Hurpagon, or Mr. Shoddy, may dwell undisturbed in their castles—although it is to be hoped that they will find for the future but few inmates for their dungeons—and the Giant Fee-faw-fum may smell the blood of young Englishwomen as usual, and long to grind their bones to make mortar for his mansion in Tyburnia. The London Dressmaking Company bear no malice to the baron or the giant; they are only desirous that giant and baron should not have things entirely their own way. Now and then a foolish fly may be decoyed into the parlour of the spider; but the flies, banded together, may as a body defeat his wiles, scorn his wages, and devote his web at last to the avenging broom. Hitherto the great drawback to any tangible or permanent amelioration of the condition of milliners and dressmakers has been in the inherent weakness and want of solidarity of the class. They are essentially a feeble folk. The apprenticeship which some of them may have served has been, in the majority of instances, to petty employers, and has given them no trade status. They have had no union, no organization, no power of protesting *en masse* against injustice and oppression. "Fanny, the Little Milliner," could get up no public meetings, could pass no resolutions, could send no delegates to employers, could resist no "discharge notes" and no "shop rules." Fanny could only toil and starve and weep in secret, and in a cowering, downcast sort of way; and then, sometimes, Fanny died of consumption or nostalgia, and then some letters were written to the newspapers, and there was a temporary outburst of virtuous indignation, which was speedily shelved until fresh horrors were revealed, and the public became once more, and quite as uselessly, indignant.

To judge from the statements made at the first general meeting of the London Dressmaking Company (Limited), the scheme, apart from its general philanthropic merits, is likely to turn out an exceedingly practical and prosperous one. Mr. Thomas Hughes, whose exertions in this good cause cannot be too highly commended, presided over the meeting, which was held at Sir Percy Burrell's house, in Berkeley-square, and was composed, as the fitness of things ordained, chiefly of ladies. It appears from the report that, out of the thousand shares issued, eight hundred have already been subscribed for. A house in Clifford-street, Bond-street, suitable in every way for carrying on the business of the Company, has been leased, and the formation of the necessary staff being in satisfactory progress, business, it is hoped, will be commenced by Lady-day next, which, by a curiously felicitous coincidence of terms,

happens to be the commencement of the fashionable London season. The declared objects of the Company are few and simple. They desire to put an end to the evils of overwork and unhealthy labour-rooms. The problem they have to solve is, first, how to obtain the wished-for ends without snatching at any undue advantage over private enterprise; and next, to secure a profit which, after giving a due return for the capital invested, shall leave a surplus which may be devoted to the benefit of the workers employed. As to any attempts to ridicule or to couch down the movement, or the sneers about ladies "playing at shop," which Mr. Hughes so earnestly deprecated, we hold them to be utterly idle. The ladies might just as well be accused of "playing at school" when a girls' reformatory is set on foot; and a like sarcasm might be levelled at Mr. Hughes or Mr. Ruskin for their praiseworthy efforts to establish a Working Man's College. The success of this Dressmaking Company must mainly depend on the goodwill, the patronage, and the support of the ladies of London. If they stand by it in a whole-hearted, single-minded manner, it will succeed; if they desert it, or uphold it only in a lukewarm and perfunctory way, it will fail, and fail dismally; for, as Mr. Hughes forcibly pointed out, "its failure would perpetuate the evils which they sought to remedy, and would be referred to as evidence of the impossibility of putting an end to a system which entailed so much suffering on hundreds of young women." But if the ladies will only screw their courage to the sticking-point, the London Dressmaking Company will not fail. In their hands it may safely be left. They have almost everything in their favour—noble patronage, adequate capital, sensible advisers, the confidence of the public, and the co-operation of the press. Some noses, of foreign or Hebrew connection or extraction, may be turned up in disdain in Regent-street *ateliers*—some hypocritical persons may predict that "the thing will never do;" but, with energy, with perseverance, and with prudence, we may predict for the London Dressmaking Company an unalloyed and permanent career of usefulness.

THE CHURCH AND THE BAR.

THE Benchers of the four Inns of Court, after deliberating on the question whether clergymen who have become dissatisfied with the work of the ministry shall be permitted to practise at the Bar, have decided that they shall. It would not be easy to overrate the importance of this decision. At the time of life when men decide the great question of their future calling, they have neither the experience of the world nor the knowledge of themselves requisite to select a career with any certainty that their more matured judgment will approve the choice of the earlier years. And, in fact, it happens in vast numbers of instances that men settle down, often, it is true, through the force of circumstances rather than of inclination, into pursuits very different from those which they had selected for their career. But when a clergyman discovers that he has mistaken his vocation, he is hampered by the fact that in the eye of the Church he can never renounce his clerical character. Once a priest, always a priest. If he is unfit for the cure of souls, so much the worse for him. This is a hardship. He need not have failed through the chilling of his zeal. Perhaps, after trial of his powers, he finds that he has inherent disqualifications for the work, which render it a matter of conscience with him to pursue it no longer. It is not necessary that he should have lost faith in what he had set himself to teach. He may still be able to listen cordially, though he has satisfied himself that he cannot preach effectively. He may feel that, while fully assenting to the doctrines of his Church, he has not the specialities which entitle him to occupy the responsible position of one of her pastors. And it is obvious that the more conscientious he is the more will he be likely to revolt from a service to which he feels that he cannot bring the special talents or the devotion which he considers requisite to its faithful discharge. But there is, also, another state of mind which will make his position equally, perhaps even more, irksome to a conscientious man. He may have lost the zeal, or even the faith, with which he commenced his pastoral career. Its work may have become positively distasteful to him. Or he may discover that he has so completely mistaken his line of usefulness and the real bent of his ambition, that he cannot with any self-respect continue at his post. Nor can we forget that there is still another reason that may induce clergymen to long for some other vocation than the one which, in the generosity and inexperience of youth, they selected. There is the poverty in which so many of the clergy are steeped to the very lips: the grinding present and the hopeless future.

But whatever be the cause which urges him towards a new career, no one can say that it is right that such a man should persevere in the discharge of duties which, through disability, or disinclination, or positive distaste, he can no longer discharge becomingly. And if this is admitted, it follows of necessity that he ought to be released from them. But a release which frees him, and at the same time debars him the choice of any other profession, is no release at all. This restriction has been felt a grievous oppression, and of late years especially clergymen have complained, and justly, that they have been unable to enter any other profession on becoming dissatisfied with their position in the Church. Why should this be? Why, while the rest of her Majesty's subjects are free to relinquish their calling and choose any other they prefer, should one class of men be "cabin'd, cribb'd, confined, bound in," by vows which have ceased to bind their consciences and engage their affections? The main argument relied on by the minority of Benchers who have lately deliberated on the admission of clergymen to the Bar, is grounded on the 76th Canon, which declares that "no man being admitted a deacon or minister shall thenceforth voluntarily relinquish the same, nor afterwards use himself as a layman upon pain of excommunication." But, on the other hand, it was argued that the exclusiveness of this canon has been to a great extent repealed by the Act passed in the second year of her Majesty's reign, called the "Pluralities' Act," a measure brought in and passed by the heads of the Church, in which there are several enactments permitting clergymen to occupy themselves in secular pursuits:—for instance, as directors and managers of insurance and other companies. If these occupations are lawful, what is there to prevent a clergyman from becoming a barrister, or a physician, surgeon, or attorney? The Benchers have decided that, as far as their jurisdiction goes, there shall be no let or hindrance to clergymen practising at the Bar. Their decision is wise and humane. It was, indeed, almost unavoidable, seeing that there are some clergymen practising at present. It is true they had been called to the Bar before they were ordained. But this is a distinction without a difference.

JUDICIAL INTERRUPTIONS.

We are all justly proud of the integrity and independence of English judges. Ever since the Act of Settlement conferred on them their offices "during their good behaviour," they have administered the law with uniform purity and impartiality. Having nothing to gain or fear from the Crown or the people, they are far above all temptation of hunting for popularity, and the majority of them would heartily endorse the truth of the maxim that "a popular judge is a deformed thing; *plaudites* are fitter for players than magistrates." As a rule, they are appointed from the bar with admirable discrimination; and if political fortune or private caprice occasionally pitchforks an incompetent lawyer into a position to which he is not entitled, even in such a case the new judge soon learns to assume virtues if he has them not. The atmosphere of the dock in a criminal court is said to give a felonious look to the most upright of men; and in the same manner the atmosphere of the Bench imparts dignity, if not learning, to its most unworthy occupant.

Considering, therefore, the high character of our judges, and the esteem in which they are deservedly held, we are bound to be "to their virtues very kind, and to their faults a little blind." Yet, in spite of all their high qualities, there are points in which some of them, at any rate, are great offenders. At the present day it is, indeed, impossible to complain of their being discourteous. They usually act harmoniously with the members of the Bar, amongst whom they themselves have spent the best days of their working lives. There is, generally speaking, an *entente cordiale* between the Bench and the Bar, wholly unknown in countries where the judges are not professional men. This was one of the circumstances to which M. Berryer alluded the other day, in terms of admiration a little mixed with generous envy. In the "good old times," bullying and brutality were as common at Westminster as at Naples under Bomba. But no judge would now venture to insult the humblest barrister in the way in which Jeffreys insulted poor Mr. Wallop. "Lord, Mr. Wallop," he said, one day, whilst a case was being tried which excited his wrath, "I observe you are in all these dirty cases." The most disreputable counsel and the shabbiest client are sure to get justice if they deserve it. Even the plaintiff or defendant in person, a nuisance of the first magnitude, will get a fair hearing. Patience and forbearance distinguish nearly all our judges, although it must be admitted that there are exceptions which will suggest them-

selves to every lawyer, where the kernel of goodness is concealed by a rough and rugged shell.

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This description cannot be called in any way complete, as it omits any directions for the articulation of ϵ or \circ or the short a ; nor can we gather whether his words refer to the long or short pronunciation of v and i . The question of the pronunciation of these vowels is further complicated by the tendency to itacism, or the merging in one the sounds of η , i , v , ϵ , \circ , which is the regular practice of the modern Greeks, and which is alluded to in Plato's "Cratylus," where he mentions the three collateral forms, $\iota\mu\epsilon\rho\alpha$, $\dot{\iota}\mu\epsilon\rho\alpha$, $\dot{\eta}\mu\epsilon\rho\alpha$. In the "Lysistrata," where the Spartan old lady obstinately prefers $\dot{\iota}\kappa\iota$ to $\dot{\eta}\kappa\iota$, we see the same tendency illustrated; and a remarkable instance occurs in the "Pænula" of Plautus, where the Greek word $\lambda\bar{\eta}\rho\omega\iota$ is translated by the Latin letters "liroe."

The probable result of comparing authorities seems to give the following force to the Greek vowels. Long a to be sounded like the *a* in "father;" short a as in "hat;" ϵ and η would seem to differ only in time, on the testimony of Terentianus Maurus,—

"Literam namque E videmus esse ad $\eta\tau\alpha$ proximam,
Sicut O et Ω videntur esse vicinae sibi,
Temporum momenta distant, non soni nativitas."

But authorities are divided upon the force of the ϵ itself, some making it like *a* in "baker," others like *e* in "get." The long ϵ is pronounced as *i* in "machine;" the short one as in "sin." We have seen that v had a tendency to approach in sound to i ; but it is evident that they were not identical, otherwise Aristophanes would never have been able to lampoon the archon Ameinias, and yet to escape the penalty for libel, by presenting

But whatever be the cause which urges him towards a new career, no one can say that it is right that such a man should persevere in the discharge of duties which, through disability, or disinclination, or positive distaste, he can no longer discharge becomingly. And if this is admitted, it follows of necessity that he ought to be released from them. But a release which frees him, and at the same time debars him the choice of any other profession, is no release at all. This restriction has been felt a grievous oppression, and of late years especially clergymen have complained, and justly, that they have been unable to enter any other profession on becoming dissatisfied with their position in the Church. Why should this be? Why, while the rest of her Majesty's subjects are free to relinquish their calling and choose any other they prefer, should one class of men be "cabin'd, cribb'd, confined, bound in," by vows which have ceased to bind their consciences and engage their affections? The main argument relied on by the minority of Benchers who have lately deliberated on the admission of clergymen to the Bar, is grounded on the 76th Canon, which declares that "no man being admitted a deacon or minister shall thenceforth voluntarily relinquish the same, nor afterwards use himself as a layman upon pain of excommunication." But, on the other hand, it was argued that the exclusiveness of this canon has been to a great extent repealed by the Act passed in the second year of her Majesty's reign, called the "Pluralities' Act," a measure brought in and passed by the heads of the Church, in which there are several enactments permitting clergymen to occupy themselves in secular pursuits:—for instance, as directors and managers of insurance and other companies. If these occupations are lawful, what is there to prevent a clergymen from becoming a barrister, or a physician, surgeon, or attorney? The Benchers have decided that, as far as their jurisdiction goes, there shall be no let or hindrance to clergymen practising at the Bar. Their decision is wise and humane. It was, indeed, almost unavoidable, seeing that there are some clergymen practising at present. It is true they had been called to the Bar before they were ordained. But this is a distinction without a difference.

JUDICIAL INTERRUPTIONS.

We are all justly proud of the integrity and independence of English judges. Ever since the Act of Settlement conferred on them their offices "during their good behaviour," they have administered the law with uniform purity and impartiality. Having nothing to gain or fear from the Crown or the people, they are far above all temptation of hunting for popularity, and the majority of them would heartily endorse the truth of the maxim that "a popular judge is a deformed thing; *plaudites* are fitter for players than magistrates." As a rule, they are appointed from the bar with admirable discrimination; and if political fortune or private caprice occasionally pitchforks an incompetent lawyer into a position to which he is not entitled, even in such a case the new judge soon learns to assume virtues if he has them not. The atmosphere of the dock in a criminal court is said to give a felonious look to the most upright of men; and in the same manner the atmosphere of the Bench imparts dignity, if not learning, to its most unworthy occupant.

Considering, therefore, the high character of our judges, and the esteem in which they are deservedly held, we are bound to be "to their virtues very kind, and to their faults a little blind." Yet, in spite of all their high qualities, there are points in which some of them, at any rate, are great offenders. At the present day it is, indeed, impossible to complain of their being discourteous. They usually act harmoniously with the members of the Bar, amongst whom they themselves have spent the best days of their working lives. There is, generally speaking, an *entente cordiale* between the Bench and the Bar, wholly unknown in countries where the judges are not professional men. This was one of the circumstances to which M. Berryer alluded the other day, in terms of admiration a little mixed with generous envy. In the "good old times," bullying and brutality were as common at Westminster as at Naples under Bomba. But no judge would now venture to insult the humblest barrister in the way in which Jeffreys insulted poor Mr. Wallop. "Lord, Mr. Wallop," he said, one day, whilst a case was being tried which excited his wrath, "I observe you are in all these dirty cases." The most disreputable counsel and the shabbiest client are sure to get justice if they deserve it. Even the plaintiff or defendant in person, a nuisance of the first magnitude, will get a fair hearing. Patience and forbearance distinguish nearly all our judges, although it must be admitted that there are exceptions which will suggest them-

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"Literam namque E videmus esse ad η -a proximam,
Sicut O et Ω videntur esse vicinæ sibi,
Temporum momenta distant, non soni nativitas."

But authorities are divided upon the force of the ι itself, some making it like a in "baker," others like e in "get." The long ι is pronounced as i in "machine;" the short one as in "sin." We have seen that υ had a tendency to approach in sound to ι ; but it is evident that they were not identical, otherwise Aristophanes would never have been able to lampoon the archon Ameinius, and yet to escape the penalty for libel, by presenting

him under the name of *Αυγείας*. There is a word to be said about the diphthongs. *Αι* and *ει* seem to have been sounded as *ai* in "gain" and *ee* in "green" respectively. The pronunciation of *αι* must have been something softer than *oy*, just as the *i* is softer than the English *i*; *οι* was equivalent to the French *ou* in "hibou," or the *oo* in "gloom," or shorter, as in "took." About *αυ* and *ευ* there is considerable uncertainty, whether or not the *v* takes the force of an *f* or a *v*. The analogy of modern Greek seems to point to this, where *ναῦν* is pronounced "nafn," and *αἴρος*, "aflos." Perhaps the truth is, that when the *v* precedes a vowel it is sounded as the *v*; when it comes before a consonant, the diphthong *αυ* is sounded as a combination of vowels, possibly as "ow."

But the pronunciation of Greek is not settled when the force of the letters has been decided; there remains the further influence of accent. Every syllable in Greek is supposed to carry an accent—viz., an acute (') where the voice is to be raised; a grave (') where it is to sink again (this accent represents the acute on final syllables); and the circumflex (") where the voice is to dwell. Practically, the grave accent is always omitted, though, strictly speaking, every syllable that is not accented acute or circumflex is supposed to have it. These accents, which really represent the original emphasis of every word, were first written by Aristophanes of Byzantium, in the second century B.C., yet few MSS. earlier than the seventh century are found with them. Yet the bearing of accents not only on orthoepy but on etymology too, is most important. Does it not seem strange that while all modern scholars admit the truth of this, accents are almost always divorced from the language in English education? Out of the few cases where they are taught to boys, most learn them as a mere effort of memory; while the majority either ignore them altogether, or sprinkle them at haphazard over their Greek compositions. As for our emphasis of Greek words, it invariably follows the English rule of pronunciation, and is far more often wrong than right. We call *κεφαλή*, *kéfálē*; *οὐλομένη*, *owlom'mēnē*: in short, we disregard accentuation altogether. But we must not make a difficulty by confounding accent, which is merely a heightened pitch of the voice, with the *quantity* of the vowel. As Erasmus's learned bear proclaims—"Aliud est acutum, aliud diu tinnire." Still it cannot be denied that for English lips taught by English ears it would at first be a difficulty, a great difficulty, to give due weight both to accent and quantity. Take, for example, the word *ἄνθρωπος*, pronounced in the Modern Greek style; it would require an emphasis on the first syllable, and a pause on the second; which Professor Blackie insists he has heard done by a railway porter at Mánchester. We might school ourselves to do this in reading Greek prose; but surely we shall need a staff of native professors to show us how to read Homer, preserving not only the hexametrical run, but the quantity and accent too. Here the Professor cuts the knot, and says Greek poetry is not intended to be plainly recited, but must be chanted to some suitable melody, syllables being represented by minims, crotchets, quavers, and the like; among which it may be safer to leave him, hoping for some sound reform in our Greek pronunciation, yet hardly prepared to welcome yet—"The Iliad of Homer, pointed as it is to be said or sung in schools."

THE REPORT OF THE PATENT LAW COMMISSION.

THE long incubating Patent Law Commission has just issued its report. Following so closely on the judicial decision in *Feathers v. The Queen*, on which we commented last week, as well as on the announcement that Government is prepared to introduce a bill to amend the law, the recommendations of the Commission possess immediate interest. In a great measure we think they will receive the approval of the thinking part of the public. Those who, with the *Times*, conceive that all patent rights should be abolished, and that inventors should be left to struggle with pirates of their brains, or to pursue their processes amid all the disadvantages and costly consequences of attempted secrecy, will indeed object to any amendment of the law. But scarcely any witness, except Sir W. Armstrong, appeared to advocate this simple rule; while against it were raised the voices of all the leading scientific and commercial associations in the kingdom. The Commissioners have not considered it worth their while to enter into this primary question; but, assuming that a Patent Law is to be maintained, have addressed themselves to the question of the machinery of the system. Briefly, their proposals may be thus summed up. The law officers of the Crown, aided by a sufficient staff, are to make such an investigation of prior patents and of published inventions as shall satisfy them that

there is real novelty in the application. It is not proposed, however, that this inquiry shall extend beyond documentary evidence of prior publication, or that it shall at all embrace the question of utility. The fees are to remain as now, viz., £25 on the grant, £50 at the end of three years, and £100 at the end of seven years. The power to prolong a patent beyond fourteen years, now exercised in rare instances by the Privy Council, is to be abolished. The right to patent inventions already published abroad is to be taken away. No interference with the present system of granting licences is recommended. With regard to the tribunal for adjudicating on patent cases, the suggestion made is that the system of juries shall be abolished; that the Courts, both of common law and equity, shall fix on a judge to whom all patent cases shall be sent, and that he shall have the assistance of scientific assessors. The Crown is to be allowed the free use of inventions, on terms to be fixed by the Treasury. The importance of this point was strongly pressed by the Duke of Somerset, on behalf of the Admiralty, and by Colonel Lefroy, for the War Office. But, on the other hand, Mr. Abel, the distinguished head of the Scientific Department at Woolwich, stated that he was not aware of any material impediment suffered by the public service from the existence of patents. It is satisfactory, also, to find that the Duke of Somerset expressed his willingness to accept arbitration, such as we suggested last week, as a means of fixing a fair price for the use of a patent by the Government.

It will be seen from this summary that the recommendations of the Commissioners agree with the principles for which we have frequently contended. The preliminary examination is to be made a useful one instead of a sham, and a judge is to be selected, aided by scientific assessors, to preside over the final litigation in case of disputes. But the defects of the proposal lie in not carrying out the principle on which the recommendations rest to the full extent. If a Patent Court were instituted at once, composed of an eminent barrister, of some scientific knowledge (Mr. Grove's distinguished qualifications in both respects will at once suggest themselves) for chief, with, as puisnes, a leading chemist and a leading mechanician, we should have a tribunal of which each member would soon share the special knowledge of his brethren, and which would speedily obtain a familiarity with the whole subject of the law such as no fluctuating Court can ever attain. It is well suggested by Chief Justice Erle that such a Court would find ample work, not merely in pure patent cases, but as the referee to which all the other Courts might remit such scientific questions as are raised before them by actions. Moreover, to such a Court as this, with its full experience and its trained registrars, would be properly committed that prior investigation which can never be very satisfactorily accomplished by law officers of the Crown, who have no scientific knowledge to begin with, and who are sure to be promoted just when they begin to be fit for their duties. That this recommendation has not been made probably arises from the unwillingness of the Commissioners, largely composed of barristers, to disturb the present agreeable system by which the law officers draw an income of many thousands a year, never voted by Parliament, from patent fees. But there is a third purpose to which the Court we have suggested might be turned, scarcely less important, and which no other body could perform. This is the fixing of the terms on which a patent upon a patent should be entitled to obtain a license, an easy matter for skilled and experienced judges to settle, but which the Commissioners, in default of such functionaries, have been obliged to leave out of their programme. And, finally, the Court we propose would be able to decide, in a shorter space than seven years, whether a patent had not come into efficient use, and would be safely and beneficially entrusted with the power in such a case of sweeping it away. These are some of the obvious advantages of such a judicature over the imperfect form which the Commissioners propose. But in their recommendations they concede the principles which it should carry out, and that is much to secure.

BREACH OF PROMISE.

YOUNG gentlemen in haste to be married should read the case of *Woodward v. Clarke*, and pause before they mistake a mere transient enthusiasm for the deeper and stronger passion on which alone, for the most part, matrimony can be safely based. It is not, we admit, every marriage which requires the deep-seated affection of which we speak. There are not a few couples who can strike the matrimonial bargain as coolly as they agree upon any ordinary business of their lives, and who can be faithful till death parts them to the vows they have

taken at the altar, or the contract they have made before the registrar, without recognising any stronger attraction towards each other than may arise from the belief on either side that the match is suitable, and will turn out well. But as the journey for which man and wife are yoked is life-long, the general prejudice is in favour of beginning with a good supply of love, and it is just in deciding whether that commodity really exists that one of the most considerable difficulties of life consists. For in youth the fancy is apt to run away with the heart, and the heart with the judgment, and the more susceptible the swain is, the more is he prone to be hurried forward unadvisedly into a proposal of marriage. Were we to take a charitable view of defendants in cases of breach of promise, we might urge that in truth they are wiser than the plaintiffs who pursue them. A young man is smitten with his partner in a dance. Her step is light, her carriage graceful, her smiles bewitching, her eyes burn a hole right through his heart, and the sound of her voice floats round him like the music of the spheres. He calls next morning, if he has the right to do so, and finds her over her crochet, or, "more exquisite still," taking part in the fascinating game of croquet. The second state of that man is so much worse than the first, that if Miss knows what she is about, and ladies generally show great readiness in discovering their opportunity, he may consider himself in danger. Grant, in addition to this perilous state of his bachelorhood, that he is what may be called "a desirable party," and that the young lady's mamma possesses the ordinary tact of matronhood, it is clear that with a little skilful management, the hour is not far distant when those fatal words will be pronounced—"Ask papa." If the family is limited in circumstances and heavy in girls, we all know that papa is the veriest cypher upon such occasions, and that from the moment our bachelor is referred to him his fate is sealed. For the most part, matrimony follows; and it is to be hoped that, as a rule, the lady who has had the wit to trap her swain will have the tact to hold him. But there are occasions when he breaks loose, even before he is finally bagged. He, too, has perhaps a mother who thinks that her dear boy might do better; or it may be that the bonds in which our beauty has snared him may be burst by the attractions of a superior beauty; and, indeed, the *Deus ex machinâ* who solves the perplexities of the over-hasty lover, and pours an ugly rush of cold water into his final epistles to his "dearest," almost universally takes the form of a goddess. Amelia was fair, fascinating, delightful. Her image floated before our bachelor day and night. It inspired his imagination and destroyed his appetite. It changed the commonest things into things, poetically speaking, divine: the rose she had pulled for him, the slippers she had worked for him, the daintily odoured and daintily expressed notes in which she had responded to his overflowing rhapsodies. But suddenly the glowing Amelia was eclipsed by a still more glowing and gorgeous Georgina, before whose superior charms Amelia's light paled. Then our bachelor underwent a change. He became more considerate of Amelia's future happiness than of her charms. He fancied that Fate had not destined him and her for one another, and that with some worthier but indefinite swain her prospect of bliss would be such as he could no longer hold out to her. And so he weds Georgina, and leaves Amelia to that most dismal decensu of an affair of the heart—an action for damages.

We have just seen, however, that it is possible for a man much to mistake the true character of his feelings without getting into a state of ecstasy, and even after he has lived long enough to obtain the mastery over his fancy and his feelings. The defendant in the case of *Woodward v. Clarke* was thirty years of age when in 1863 he returned from India and renewed an old acquaintance with Miss Woodward's family. It seems very doubtful whether there had previously been any attachment on his part towards this young lady, and there is nothing to account for the rapidity with which he fell in love with her, except his own statement that he was so delighted with the reception he met with from his friends in England that he entirely mistook his own feelings. Why his gratitude to the whole circle of his friends should concentrate itself on Miss Woodward, he does not offer to explain. Certainly, never was there a more prompt resignation to the tender passion. On the 30th of March he went to Malvern, and from that day the lady's family saw that there was something more than ordinary friendship in the wind. He sat by her all day, spoke hardly to anyone else, and paid her those exclusive attentions whose drift cannot be misunderstood. Between the 30th of March and the 27th of April, when their engagement was announced to the family, he took every opportunity of ingratiating himself by those delicate overt acts which precede a distinct declaration. He frequently drove her out when she was

ill, wished that he might be late for the train which was to take him away from her, read her his own verses, took away a broach which she had broken to be repaired, and, when she mended one of his gloves, protested that the stitches she had put into it would be the best part of it. Of course, when he assumed the position of an accepted lover, he had the right to be much more explicit in his expressions of affection, and his letters could leave no doubt in Miss Woodward's mind, both from their warmth and their frequency, that his love was of a durable quality. "Don't believe," he writes on one occasion, "that you are out of mind as well as out of sight, for your image is before me daily;" on another, "Oh! Emily, I am always thinking of you, and soon, dear Emily, I hope the reality will come;" on a third, when at Killarney, "I wish your real, dear face had been here. If it had been, I have no doubt we should have caught some salmon last week, for, far from frightening them, it would have been more likely they would have come up from their beds to see your fair countenance. Shall I put your *carte* upon the hook and see if they will come up and make your acquaintance?" As the days which were to elapse before their marriage wore away, his letters increased, if possible, in tenderness. They were to be married in the autumn, and on the 9th of August he wrote—"Don't think, Emily dear, you have been out of my mind as well as sight; your image is ever before me, and I feel so happy after my return, and I look forward to uninterrupted happiness with you." Even so late as the 25th of August he talked of the sweets that were in store for them. But with this letter the romance ended. So far from Miss Woodward's *carte* being available to catch salmon, the original failed to hook the fisherman. With a very shabby wriggle he broke away, and on the 9th of September wrote that he had always felt he was unsuited for married life; that his means were not sufficient to support a wife as he should wish to support her; that he hoped she would forgive him the anxiety he might have caused her, and that at some future day they might meet again with feelings of esteem and friendship.

Mr. Clarke seems to have thought that it would be well to accompany this letter with some religious verses, and a text from St. John appropriate to the condition of a lady in Miss Woodward's position. Probably the same ingenuity which suggested a *carte de visite* for fish that would not bite, suggested the perusal of sacred poetry as a heal-all for a wounded heart. There are not many men who would have adopted such an expedient under such circumstances; and though Mr. Clarke says by his counsel that it was his mother, not he, who enclosed the verses in his letter, we cannot resist the strong probability that they were sent with his knowledge. It is a still more discreditable fact that he allowed a plea to be put on the record denying his promise of marriage. Such a plea in such a case was an insult to the woman he had wronged. As a mere matter of prudence, too, it was idle, and calculated to aggravate his offence. His letters put the fact of promise beyond all doubt. In the last which he sent her he wrote:—"I had hoped to be spared the painful necessity of writing to you direct on a subject that for some time past has given me great uneasiness, more minutely, for, I may say, some time, about my error in judgment in having been so hasty in proposing to you on our very short acquaintance, and before I well knew whether it was real love I felt for you, or only general esteem and admiration." It would have been much better to have rested his defence upon this apology than to put a false plea upon the record. But to what does the apology amount, even supposing it to be true, and that the impression of Miss Woodward's charms had not been obliterated by charms which impressed the defendant more deeply. In all cases of this kind, we believe it would be better in point of policy, as it would certainly be much more manly, to tell the whole truth at once. For what can be more contemptible than for a man of thirty years of age, after engaging a woman's affections and holding her out to the world as his future wife, to cry "off" upon the plea that he had committed an error of judgment, and had mistaken the real character of his sentiments? The jury, we are glad to see, were as little disposed to be propitiated by this explanation as Miss Woodward was by the religious verses. They gave their verdict for the plaintiff, and assessed her damages at £2,000. Mr. Clarke has thus paid dearly for his want of introspective discrimination. And it is to be hoped that a penalty proportionately severe will be the fate of all who propose in haste and repent at leisure.

"EXTRACT OF MEAT."

SEVERAL correspondents have written to us to know where the "Extract of Meat," upon which we wrote in the last number of

the LONDON REVIEW, may be obtained. As yet, we believe, no English agency has been established. But the Extract can be had by application addressed to J. Bennert, agent, Society of Fray Bentos, Antwerp.

THE CHURCH.

THE UNITY OF CHRISTENDOM.

THE strangest of illusions of the present day is the pursuit after the Unity of Christendom. A *desire* for unity is an intelligible thing enough, but to set seriously about *attaining* it is palpably a Quixotic battling with windmills. The desire for an universal happy Christian family is a very laudable feeling no doubt, but with most persons we suspect that the object aimed at is very vague and indefinite; or, if it be not, it is simply a wish, unless with very large-minded people indeed, that the whole world would come to be of the same way of thinking on religion as oneself. It is of course impossible to fathom the depths of other people's minds; but, if one could mentally put himself into their shoes, and realize the particular "bundles of ideas" they are respectively composed of, he would probably find that this phantom unity is looked at by its advocates through some confusion of thought, or peculiar obliquity of vision, that completely accounts for the infatuation. Or, it is by no means unlikely that he would find some ritualistic proclivities at the bottom, which sufficiently account for some of its well-marked features of onesidedness.

Our remarks on this subject have been suggested by the curious embroilment with his clergy into which the excellent Bishop of Salisbury, who had won golden opinions for himself in the matter of "Essays and Reviews," has been brought by some remarks on this unity made in his last charge. We cannot conceive on what grounds a bishop, so strongly attached to the doctrines of the Reformation, could dream of a possible reunion of his Church with Rome. The suggestion he threw out was, that the Church of England should become a kind of go-between for union both of itself and Puritanism with the Church of Rome. The idea was thrown out by the Ultramontane Count de Maistre, that the first advance should be made by the Church of England, because it "touches with one hand, so to speak, the different Protestant bodies, and with the other the Roman Catholic Church, and she is very precious to Christendom." We know well what an Ultramontane would mean by "very precious to Christendom," and what kind of reunion would only be possible in his eyes. It is no wonder, therefore, that the clergy of Sarum should have been alarmed at the adoption of such sentiments by their bishop, and have solemnly entered their protest against them. They very logically have argued that, though they never thought that Dr. Hamilton had any "intention of introducing among them the corruptions of any other bodies of Christians, the effect of a reunion between the Church of England and the Gallican, or any other in subjection to the See of Rome, must inevitably be to introduce among them those very corruptions." The bishop is, of course, fretted and annoyed, complains that he has been misrepresented, and then eventually takes refuge in a truism suggested by his clergy that they would "joyfully welcome a reunion that was based in truth." With such a door of escape open for him, the inconsistency of his position is crowned by his passing through it with the words:—"I, for my part, adopt your profession as my own, and appeal to all my past teaching and practice in evidence of the sincerity with which I make it."

Here, then, is a storm in a teakettle, which has made a great stir in the diocese of Salisbury, and all it comes to is a desire for a "reunion that is based in truth." The whole affair illustrates what we have already said, that most of the advocates of this phantom unity either have no very definite idea of the object they aim at, or are influenced by a general desire for peace. It is not considered whether the separate action of the churches be not a necessary stage in the progress of that religion, which the Divine Providence that directs the Church intends should in its time expand over a United Christendom; the obstacles that stand in the way of an immediate union are either ignored or forgotten; or dust is thrown into people's eyes to make them believe that an ill-concealed sympathy with Romish doctrines and practices is a movement towards a Christian unity.

Admitting, then, that unity is a *desideratum*, and the goal towards which all Christian progress must tend, we still maintain that diversity is its present essential condition. Diversity of beliefs is a natural and a necessary consequence of liberty of thought, and can only be replaced by a physical despotism that substitutes a hollow hypocrisy for it under the name of unity, or by the gradual concurrence of individual free opinions, through the spread of knowledge, into a common centre. The latter is the only unity worthy of the name; but Christianity is not yet in a condition to attain unto it. Any attempt to forestall it must end in failure or a hollow truce. Diversity of opinion is the necessary sifting that precedes the discovery of truth, and separates it from the falsities with which it is mixed. It therefore is a good; and, as the day has not yet arrived when it can merge into a unity, it is better that each denomination should be left to its own religious convictions, to do good in its own sphere, provided everything be leavened by the spirit of that Christian charity which is the common inheritance of all. For these reasons we believe that the attempt to do away with diversity of religious belief is a mistake, founded on a total misapprehension of the spirit and mission of the age in which we live.

But it would be impossible, even were it desirable, to have a unity of Christendom now, at the very time when the sifting process is being more vigorously carried on than in former ages, and religious prejudices yet hold their grasp as firmly as ever. A religious unity would require a sacrifice of special doctrines which no denomination is as yet prepared to make. Amidst the variety of conflicting opinions all cannot be true, and many must be errors. Is any Church prepared to cast aside its errors, or its petty jealousies about the non-essentials of religion, for the sake of a united Christendom? The Church of England does hold a kind of middle place between Puritanism on the one hand, and the Roman and Greek Churches on the other; but then we have the fact of her bishops and clergy being united in refusing to alter a single word of her Liturgy to accommodate the scruples of Puritanism. The advocates of this Christian harmony speak a great deal about union of the Greek and Latin Churches with England; but a marvellous silence is observed about Dissent. If they be honest, and would be consistent, Puritanism must be comprehended in their scheme. And then, if they can succeed in uniting the two extremes with the Church of England, how shall the extremes themselves blend—Popery, Anglicanism, and Puritanism—in one harmonious whole? This is the impossible problem in which the Bishop of Salisbury so unwisely entangled himself, and from which he as hastily retreated. Then, again, there would be the impossibility of blending the Greek and Roman Church in a unity, and either of them with the Church of England. Altogether, the scheme is more Utopian than the wildest dream that ever made its way to the upper regions through the celebrated ivory portals of *Somnus*.

A rapid glance at the discordant elements to be harmonized will exhibit, in its fairest proportions, the dreaminess of this scheme. The Puritans are first to be drawn into the Church of England; and, then, the Roman Catholic Church, and the Greek and Lutheran Churches with it, are to be all whirled into one vortex—

"Nantes in gurgite vasto."

The Church of Rome floats at once to the centre. On no other condition will the Papal see consent to union but that of the chair of St. Peter being the central sun and fountain of light round which the other planets must revolve. This has been clearly set forth in the Pope's late denunciation of the Association for Promoting the Unity of Christendom, and in the Encyclical. The Greek Church, in the first place, must yield on the question of the procession of the Holy Ghost from the Son, that created the great schism between the Eastern and Western Churches. Purgatory, and all its fires, should be swallowed also. On the invocation of saints, auricular confession, and transubstantiation, there would be no difficulty; for there the Greeks are at home. The Lutheran Church, though separated from Rome by an impassable gulf, could fall in with its views in some matters of ceremonial, and on auricular confession; and its doctrine of consubstantiation might possibly admit of being harmonized with transubstantiation. But how could all these blend with the Church of the English Reformation? It would be absolutely impossible. Even the Tractarian party could not swallow the infallibility of the Pope. They certainly could pick and cull a few nice little dogmas out of the creed of Pope Pius IV., with which they would heartily sympathize. But how could the Evangelical party be included in this unity of Christendom? It would be a miserable unity, from which one-half at least of the Church of England was excluded. But the Puritans would be the greatest of the stumbling-blocks. They are schismatics from the English Church; and their clerical orders would not be recognised. They plainly could not be included in the happy family. Where, then, would there be a place for Mr. Spurgeon, with his heretical notions of baptism and liturgies? Greeks, Romans, and Anglicans would eschew him as contemptuously as he eschewed their "spittoons." The unepiscopal Presbyterians, Methodists, Independents, and Congregationalists, with their extemporal prayers, should also be summarily ejected. The result would be that the Church of England would not succeed as a go-between, as Count de Maistre imagined it, to unite such extremes to herself and to each other; and, in the chaos of conflicting opinions, the unity of Christendom would end in a veritable Dutch concert of most inharmonious discord.

Of a scheme so chimerical, the wonder is how it could ever have been seriously propounded. There is, however, a solution of the mystery. The unity is onesided, and the real motive power in urging it forward is sympathy with the ceremonial of the Roman and Greek Churches, and hatred of evangelical Protestantism. The party that mainly and consistently advocates it in the Church of England, is that which magnifies the priestly function, aims at sacerdotal power, and believes in a real presence of Christ's body on the sacramental altar. It is for those who delight in ritual, who bedeck their churches with crosses and candles, recommend private confession, and never cease to talk of themselves above all things as "Catholics," that the Greek and Roman Churches have a special attraction; and it is by them principally that unity with these churches is sought, while there is not a word of sympathy for Puritanism. To these sacerdotalists the religion of the Reformation is "narrow-minded, hateful Protestantism;" and, in their opinions, we find the true explanation of this impracticable movement. A Unity of Christendom we do not deny; a real unity we look forward to. But it is a unity that will be the natural growth of time, the fruit of many opinions concurring in one, that will be comprehensive, spiritual, purged from superstition, and truly stamped with the image of the Divine Head of the Universal Church.

LITURGICAL REFORM.

THE Session of Parliament has commenced, and Churchmen are on the tiptoe of expectation of unusual doings in the way of Church Reform. The agitation of a change in the Court of Final Appeal has accustomed them to that idea ; and very many clergymen who, a few years ago, stoutly resisted any, even the slightest change, have, by the strange course that events have since taken, been forced to change their opinions. Lord Ebury is at his post still, and looks on with complacent satisfaction at Church Reform growing spontaneously to his hand. He certainly has planted and watered amidst no slight contempt and *odium theologicum* ; but the increase promises to come in faster than even he expected. His lordship will scarcely have to wait as many years to see beneficial liturgical changes brought about as Wilberforce had in his efforts towards Negro Emancipation. The question of subscription is now settled. The report of the Royal Commissioners is ready to be laid before Parliament ; and, if their recommendations be adopted, we shall hear no more about "assent and consent to all and everything," &c. It is said that the new form of subscription will require assent generally to the Thirty-nine Articles, and to the Book of Common Prayer, with a declaration of belief in the doctrines therein set forth, as agreeable to the Word of God, followed by a promise to use, in public prayer and the administration of the sacraments, the prescribed form and no other. This, no doubt, will be a great improvement on the former state of things ; for there is a great difference between saying the *doctrines* therein set forth are agreeable to the Bible, and "consenting and assenting to all and everything contained in a book of human composition." Then, we are promised changes in the Lessons. The Archbishop of Canterbury will give permission for a reform in that direction ; and also a rubric may be altered in the Burial Service. All may well rejoice if even so much change be effected in the Session of 1865, and none, under the circumstances, need complain if there be no more. It is a great point gained to break through the frozen surface that has fossilized the Church into the form in which it was cast 300 years ago ; and we think that the men who opposed change but a few years ago will now be the first to promote it. One lesson the clergy have learned by the late judgment on "Essays and Reviews," is not likely to be lost on them. If they had, in the past, given their voices to make the formulae of the Church more elastic, and had adapted her doctrines and discipline to the growing opinions of the day and the progress of religious belief, these formulae would not have failed them in a judgment to be pronounced by the highest ecclesiastical tribunal in the land as to the Inspiration of Scripture and the Eternity of future punishment. May it not be hoped that the experience thus gained will be a profitable lesson for the future ?

FINE ARTS.

THE BRITISH INSTITUTION.

THE exhibition of modern pictures which this old-established institution of patrons and promoters of the fine arts, who are supposed to have no favour or affection for any particular society of artists, provides each year, reflects in a striking manner the kind of art that prevails over a wide field occupied by popular artists. We look round in amazement at the mass of commonplace heaped upon the walls, from floor to ceiling, not overlooking a good picture here and there, but wondering whether the directors have gone out into the highways and byways to find so many paintings that have so little merit. A large proportion appear to be either first attempts, or those hopeless efforts which unsuccessful artists persist in making, while they refuse to see that all the world has long been telling them, as gently but as plainly as possible, that they have no genius. A society of artists who had their reputation at stake would most certainly decline to exhibit such productions as these ; but it says little for the taste and judgment of the "lay element" that the British Institution exercises no taste, and carries out no principle of selection. All seems to be fish that comes to their net. It is this, with an equally obstinate view as to the hanging of good pictures, which has brought the exhibition to what it is—a gallery where a first-rate artist will only send his picture out of kindly feeling, and which a second-rate man avoids for fear of being seen in such poor company. The good names have gradually dwindled down, till now we find Sir Edwin Landseer almost alone in his glory. Mr. Ansdell, A.R.A., his worthy rival in animal painting, keeps his place, it is true ; but with the exception of a little sketch or two by Mr. E. W. Cooke, R.A., and a similar insignificant contribution from Mr. Frost, A.R.A., there is not a single name of note in the catalogue. And yet, as we all remember, this gallery used to attract the works of the best artists of the day. Referring to the list of directors, it becomes difficult to believe that gentlemen whose taste and influence in the fine arts is admitted, such as Lord Overstone, Mr. Holford, Sir Matthew White Ridley, Sir Philip Egerton, Mr. H. Danby Seymour, &c. &c., can have much to do with the interests of the institution. It would seem to be a very easy matter to make a clean sweep of the trash that makes the prettiest gallery in London look like a dealer's sale-room ; and if it were once given out that this would be done, the best artists would never hesitate a moment about sending their pictures. As it is, the Academy stand aloof,

and attribute the "bad name" the institution has so unfortunately and so undeservedly got, to the want of professional artists as managers. For our own part, we think that the names mentioned above ought to represent the influence, the taste, and the business-like energy that would restore the institution to the high point it has lost.

As to the number of commonplace pictures here which have no fault as specimens of a handicraft—though they are the curse of most of our exhibitions—they represent simply the demand for pictures to meet a certain consumption ; they have no interest whatever for us as art. There is the market of the art unions and the print shops, and the innumerable host of prosperous men risen from the ranks who must have their works of art, all ready to buy these pictures as fast as the artists can paint them. It is bad for art, we say ; but the question is, how are we to put on the time to that sort of millennium when nothing but high art is to reign ? This common grass seed may be carried away, to fall on some stony ground which at last, like Lord Palmerston's Irish bogs, may be so improved as to grow the fruit and grain. For this reason we are disposed to be more tolerant of these works, and the artists who turn an honest penny by them, than of a society of men of taste who permit an institution, the avowed object of which is the promotion of the fine arts, to become degraded by sheer neglect and disregard of so much that is calculated to promote the fine arts, so far as modern painting is concerned.

Addressing ourselves, then, to those pictures which really have an interest, we notice Landseer's "Event in the Forest" (204), a narrow upright canvas, not very large, but bringing with remarkable vividness to the eye the rugged snow-covered mountain side, at the foot of which lies, all broken-limbed and shapeless, the once noble stag, fallen from the height above ; a hungry fox sniffs cautiously at the feast before him, and turns his sly head as he catches sight of an eagle about to swoop and claim either his share or the fox himself. There is something too much of the melo-dramatic, we may say, in this ; but such wild incidents are to be seen in the mountains, and the landscape completely carries out the idea of grim desolation and death to the gallant and beautiful stag. The mastery of the painter is admirably shown—the pliant form and nervous life of the very hair of the fox, contrasted with the heavy death that marks the lumpy form of the dead stag. "No Hunting till the Weather Breaks" (189) is a more homely subject of sporting life. We are shown the hounds crowded about the kennel, where the huntsman has come, and left his horse at the gate, to exchange familiar greetings with his companions of the chase, all yelping and snarling at one another, out of humour at the wintry weather. This is a rather sketchy picture, and the dogs are only half-length portraits, but every head is touched with the most perfect and subtle perception of dog character. "Dear Old Boz" (85) is, as the name implies, a portrait of a favourite brown Skye dog belonging to the Queen. In this Sir Edwin has not done more than most animal painters could do, and the touch of the master is not so marked as in the two other pictures by him. The eyes of the dog are feebly drawn, and the painting of the long silky hair wants the peculiar look of hair which this eminent painter's finest works of this kind have. Mr. Ansdell, A.R.A., ventures upon a rather absurd allegory of dogs in his picture, "The Death of Cæsar." A huge mastiff lies dead at the base of a pedestal, on which is a bronze figure of a favourite pointer, whose name, "Pompey," is carved on the pedestal. An ordinary immortelle wreath hangs on the corner of the pedestal, and Cæsar's wreath of laurel lies crushed beneath his dead carcase. A party of other dogs are looking round, and supposed to be exchanging congratulations on the downfall of a tyrant. All such attempts to throw a moral over dog-manners are a mistake in painting : they may be tolerable in such amusing fancies as Dr. Brown paints, but on canvas they sink into the ridiculous. In this case, too, the incongruity is the more obtrusive from the large size of the picture ; had it been a small sketchy bravura, we could have enjoyed the joke. There is, no doubt, something mysterious in the look of the brute countenance ; we can speculate as to whether they think and feel for us, or whether they bestow all their thoughts and affections on "the cupboard," in which case, certainly, they would often be no worse than their human superiors ; but art travels out of the legitimate line when anything more than this mysterious look of the creatures is indicated. Better than anything of this aim is the somewhat hard and unfeeling version of "A Farmyard, with Merino Sheep, at Barbizon, in France" (412), by a French cattle painter, M. F. Chaigneau ; or the "Cossack Ponies," whose long tails are made to wave about with such rough preposterous dash and freedom, by M. A. F. de Prades, in his large picture (84), "Travelling in Russia." The best cattle piece in the exhibition is, perhaps, Mr. Aster Corbould's "Highland Drover's Halt" (619).

In landscape painting we have the satisfaction to notice a work of the highest merit ; and the more so as the artist, Mr. Dawson, though for several exhibitions he has been observed advancing steadily, is, comparatively, only at the beginning of his career. The picture is a large view of "London and the Banks of the Thames, from Vauxhall" (195), taken just as the morning sun is breaking through the light grey clouds and spreading a flood of glory abroad upon the crowded dwellings, the churches, the palaces, and the cabins of the poor. The picture is painted with so much delicious purity of tint, such just perception of the brilliant beauty, and yet the modesty and grand reserve of nature, that it charms the eye and lifts the heart as true art only can do. We remember no landscape for years that comes so near to the ideal of a grand and natural treatment of a subject that is only beautiful when so treated. We shall look with the warmest interest to Mr. Dawson's painting

of those more strictly landscape subjects which demand not less skill or poetry of feeling, though they may afford the painter a grander and more intellectual theme. It is curious to turn from this picture of commonplace objects finely treated, to one of an extremely grand and noble subject treated in a commonplace manner, as, for example, the picture of "The Black Mountain: Argyle at Midnight in Early Winter" (212), a work by M. A. Gilbert, which is really a wonderful example of technical manipulation. Or there is a large picture of the Cordilleras of Ecuador, by M. L. R. Mignot, blazing in a tropical sun, with every conceivable plant form; or large canvases vainly painted to represent the vast granite piles of the Alps wrapped in snow and clouds, by Mr. Elijah Walton; or to Mr. J. Danby's everlasting theme of a red sunset and blue mist, all of which may be praised as good specimens of painting, but wanting that infinite variety and suggestiveness which a painter who loves to study nature rather than his sketch-book, never fails to throw into his work. It is not but that painters must have a manner of telling their story, but that we have seen the same thing so often told in precisely the same way, that we are weary of it. Mr. Niemann treats the landscape from Hampstead firs in the same half-savage style of colouring and drawing that he would a moorland scene with moss-troopers. The immense picture (601), "Hampstead Heath," has nothing but its size to recommend it.

Of the figure subjects in the exhibition, Mr. Charles Lucy's "Sleeping Babes in the Wood" (358) is the only picture that can be spoken of with perfect satisfaction. This is a small work, but painted with great finish; the children, a dark-haired boy and a fair little girl, in rich dresses of green and red velvet, lie under the shade of a wide-spreading oak, with the gloomy forest beyond; they are drawn with much beauty and grace of line, and the colouring of the picture is throughout chaste and in quiet harmony. A picture called "Three Sisters" (118), by W. B. Richmond, challenges criticism upon the old, and we hoped forsaken, ground of realistic imitation. In this we have an artist of evident technical acquirements, setting himself to copy three young ladies in fashionable silks, composed in strict pyramidal arrangement, from the topmost hair on their heads to the lowest bit of fringe on their shoe-ties. They sit on air, or an invisible rock it may be, and behind is a landscape, painted in the same stiff and minute manner. The production is esteemed (by the artist) so precious that it is placed under glass. With all this ridiculous parade, the picture is simply one of those forgiveable mistakes made by young artists, who delight in imagining that faithfulness and love for art are virtues to be displayed in this sort of abject imitation of interesting young ladies with outrageous *coiffures* and elaborate *toilettes*. No good work can redeem these productions from the charge of affectation. Mr. Frank Wyburd contributes a picture (51), "Baby's Corner," pretty enough in the subject of a young mother undressing her baby near a painted window, but terribly wanting in all the qualities of flesh-painting. Some of the small cabinet pictures deserve mention for the neatness of the work and picturesque conformities, though they fall very far behind the great French model in this style, M. Meissonier. Mr. Rossiter has two very good little works of this kind—(31) "The Waverer," and (5) "The Regent." Mr. Weekes's "Away with Melancholy" (488) is another of those small works which is worth examining; and "A Woman in White" (533), by Mr. P. A. Daniel, shows some good points in colour and general careful study. Mr. Pettie's "Out of an Engagement" (312)—a violinist cheering his heart with a tune in his poor lodging, in the company of his two pretty little girls, the very picture of untidiness—is another of the smaller works which in some measure supply the deficiency of more important subject pictures in the exhibition.

MUSIC.

We must defer until our next number all detailed notice of the two events of the week—the commencement of Mr. Henry Leslie's Concerts; and the production, at the Royal English Opera, of Mr. Frank Mori's one-act opera, "The River Sprite."

At the two last Monday popular concerts, Madame Arabella Goddard has been the pianiste, on each occasion playing, as her solo piece, Dussek's sonata known as the "Invocation"—a work which approaches the grandeur and passionate earnestness of Beethoven's style, and is above all changes of taste and fashion.

The concerts of the so-called Beethoven Society have been continued on Saturday evenings, but with that mixture of composers in its programmes to which we have before adverted, as somewhat interfering with the implied speciality of the scheme.

The Musical Society of London has announced a trial of new orchestral works for Wednesday next—the public concerts are to take place on March 29, May 3, June 7 and 28. The elder Philharmonic commences its series of eight concerts on March 20.

The Sacred Harmonic Society gave "Elijah" yesterday week, and have announced "Israel in Egypt" for next Friday week. The National Choral Society performed "Judas Maccabaeus" on Wednesday, when Mr. G. Perren successfully replaced Mr. Sims Reeves, who has been prevented by an accident from fulfilling his recent engagements.

If Parisian criticism is to be trusted, Prince Poniatowski's new opera, "L'Aventurier" (recently produced at the Théâtre Lyrique), is a success. We shall be glad, not to say surprised, if its musical merits prove to be as high as is stated by some of the French authorities. After the experience of "Lara," however, it is impossible to avoid being somewhat distrustful of local ecstasies.

There can be no doubt whatever as to the success, with the Parisian public, of M. Gevaert's "Capitaine Henriot," which is bringing in large sums to the treasury of the Opéra Comique.

THE LONDON THEATRES.

As the laws affecting theatres and other places of public amusement will probably occupy the attention of Parliament early in the present session, it may be as well to see how the question stands in the metropolis. The Act technically known as the 6 & 7 Vict., which was passed in 1843, and under which the Lord Chamberlain and the Justices of the Peace derive their power to license London and country theatres, is so sweeping in its provisions and definitions that no entertainment given out of a licensed theatre is legally safe. A comic song, a fancy dance, or a vocal duet, may be easily proved to be a "stage-play" within the meaning of the Act, and all speculators in public entertainments, who are not theatrical lessees licensed by the Lord Chamberlain in town, and by the Justices in the country, are hourly at the mercy of trading rivals and common informers.

Since this Act of Parliament was passed, in 1843, no new theatre has been erected in London, but the following metropolitan concert-halls, music-halls, and miscellaneous places of amusement, the value and capacity of which are roughly estimated, have sprung into existence:—

London Concert Halls, Music Halls, and Entertainment Galleries.
Estimated Figures.

	Cost of Buildings and Fittings. £.	No. of Persons Accommodated Daily.
Crystal Palace	1,000,000	100,000
Agricultural Hall	50,000	20,060
St. James's Hall	50,000	5,000
St. Martin's Hall	50,000	4,000
Exeter Hall	50,000	6,000
Gallery of Illustration	5,000	500
Egyptian Hall	5,000	500
Polygraphic Hall	5,000	500
Polytechnic	20,000	1,000
Alhambra, Leicester-square	50,000	5,000
Oxford, Oxford-street	40,000	2,000
Strand, Strand	30,000	1,500
Canterbury-hall, Lambeth	25,000	1,500
Metropolitan, Edgware-road	25,000	2,000
Regent, Westminster	25,000	1,500
Wilton's, Wellclose-square	20,000	1,500
Evans's, Covent-garden	20,000	1,000
Weston's, Holborn	20,000	1,500
Philharmonic, Islington	20,000	1,500
Highbury Barn, Highbury	20,000	2,000
Cambridge, Shoreditch	16,000	2,000
Winchester, Southwark	15,000	2,000
Lord Raglan, Theobald's-road	12,000	1,500
Middlesex, Drury-lane	12,000	1,200
London Pavilion, Coventry-street	12,000	2,000
South London, London-road	8,000	1,200
Marylebone	8,000	800
Oriental, Poplar	7,000	800
Borough	6,000	1,000
Bedford, Camden Town	5,000	800
Deacon's, Clerkenwell	5,000	800
Trevor, Knightsbridge	5,000	800
Sun, Knightsbridge	5,000	800
Lansdowne, Islington	4,000	600
Rodney, Whitechapel	3,000	600
Apollo, Bethnal-green	3,000	600
Westminster, Pimlico	3,000	800
Nag's Head, Lambeth	2,000	500
Woodman, Hoxton	2,000	500
Eastern Alhambra	2,000	1,000
Swallow-street	2,000	500
41 Places	£1,667,000	179,300

The London music-halls, concert-halls, &c., the earliest of which was built in 1851, and the latest in 1864, have their value very fairly, though roughly, estimated in the above table, from which a number of small tavern concert-rooms are excluded. Some halls may be overrated and some underrated in this table—for example, the Alhambra is put down at £50,000, although it cost £100,000, because the smaller sum more nearly represents its value, but the totals are tolerably correct for an estimate.

The music-halls, concert-halls, &c., in the country, that have sprung into existence since the passing of the Act of 1843, may be estimated as bearing the same proportion to the country theatres as the London halls do to the London theatres, viz., nearly 2 to 1. The capital invested in them cannot be far short of a million sterling, and they provide nightly accommodation for at least half a million persons.

These figures may be advantageously compared with those of the London theatres:—

List of London Theatres, and the Number of Persons they will hold.	
Her Majesty's	2,200
Drury Lane	2,500
Covent Garden	2,500
Haymarket	1,500
Princess's	2,000
St. James's	1,000
Adelphi	1,800
Lyceum	1,700

Marylebone	1,200	City of London	1,400
Olympic	1,000	Standard	2,000
Strand	700	Garrick	1,100
Astley's	2,200	New Royalty	600
Victoria	2,000	Queen's	900
Surrey	2,000	Sadler's Wells	1,300
Pavilion	2,300		
Grecian	2,000	23 theatres, containing	38,000
Britannia	2,400		

These figures prove, beyond question, that the London theatres have not advanced with the population during the last quarter of a century, but have stood still under a monopoly which has only benefited a few landlords. The construction of these buildings, which ought to be regulated by the Lord Chamberlain under the Act of 1843, has not been improved so as to secure greater safety for the public in the event of fire, or an alarm of fire. The whole modern British drama, which is read and sanctioned by the Lord Chamberlain's licenser of plays under the same act (the last Government check upon free speaking and free printing) has not been improved so as to secure more decent plots, or more propriety in representation.

SCIENCE.

SOME very interesting facts in connection with the subject of marriages of consanguinity have just been put on record by M. A. Voisin. He carried on his investigations in the town of Batz, in the Loire-Inférieure. Having selected forty-six cases of consanguineous marriages, he examined the husbands, wives, and children, both in regard to their physical and intellectual development, and made inquiries concerning the families examined, and their ancestors, through the assistance of the mayor, pastor, and oldest inhabitants. Combining the statistics thus collected, he has found that intermarriages do not bring about disease, idiocy, or malformation. However, it is important to mark that these results are attributed by the writer to the favourable climate of the locality, and to the general habits, hygiene, and morality of the inhabitants, as well as to the absence of all hereditary disease. The town of Batz is situated upon a peninsula bounded on one side by the rocks of the sea-shore, and on the other by salt marshes. The air is pure, and the most frequent winds are from the north, north-east, and north-west. The number of inhabitants is about 3,300. They have little communication with other parts of the country, and their occupation is almost confined to the preparation of salt. They are very intelligent, almost all the adults being able to read. The morality is of the highest stamp, prostitution being unknown. Theft and murder have not occurred within the recollection of the oldest inhabitant. The mothers nurse the children till they are fifteen months old, and the general food of the population is of the vegetable class. There are at present in Batz 46 consanguineous pairs of first cousins, 5 unions between second cousins, 31 marriages of third cousins, and 10 of cousins in the fourth degree. From the 5 unions of second cousins, there have been 23 children, none of whom have presented any congenital deformity. The 31 marriages of third cousins have produced 120 children, all healthy; and the marriages of fourth cousins have given rise to 29 children, all of whom—with the exception of those who died of ague—were strong and healthy at the period of examination. The writer contends that such facts as the foregoing prove that consanguineous marriages by no means lead to the degeneration of a race.

In our review of Science for the year 1864 we had occasion to call attention to the vastly greater per-cent of successful cases of ovariotomy recorded on the Continent than in these countries. The difference we attributed to the "heroic" manner in which we ourselves have seen the operation performed in England; and, while alluding to this circumstance, we also observed, *en passant*, that Continental surgeons were more cautious than our fellow-countrymen. These statements would appear to have excited the anger of one of our would-be scientific contemporaries, which in its doubtless well-intentioned, but rather "provincial" desire to exalt British surgery above that of all other countries, has endeavoured to be severe upon us. Lest, therefore, any of our readers should be disposed to doubt the accuracy of the assertions made in our annual summary, we beg to assure them that they will find the facts, related pretty nearly as we have given them, in the *Comptes Rendus* of the French Academy, tome lix., No. 7, page 328. Those who are desirous of ascertaining the small proportion of British successful cases of ovariotomy, we would refer to the admirable Appendix which Professor Clay has compiled for the English version of Kiwisch's treatise upon Disease of the Ovaries—a book which we think the contemporary we have alluded to would do well to peruse.

An entirely new method of depositing certain metals upon others has been announced by M. Well, a French chemist. The baths he employs consist of metallic salts or oxides in alkaline solutions, by means of glycerine, albumen, and other substances, which prevent the precipitation of the oxide by the fixed alkali—in some cases with, and in other cases without, the aid of zinc or lead, and at various temperatures, according to circumstances. The discoverer asserts that by these means also, in covering other metals with copper, he can produce any variety of colour that may be desired. The most important applications of the discovery are the deposition of copper, and the bronzing of iron and steel, with-

out the preparatory dressings with conducting substances, which are necessary when the deposit is produced through the medium of the ordinary galvanic method. M. Well considers that by his process iron and steel, when coated with copper, may be afterwards silvered or covered with nickel.

We understand that the French Council of State is about to introduce a new system of telegraphy into operations through France. Hitherto only two sorts of apparatus have been in general use—namely, the needle, and the alphabetic index instruments. The new one, invented by Caselli, is to be autographic, so as to produce the telegram in the handwriting of the sender. The tariff is therefore regulated, not according to the number of words, but in relation to the size of the sheet employed. Thus, for a sheet of about four and a quarter square inches, the charge will be six francs. On the sheet of paper provided, the sender will be allowed to figure any correspondence, trade-mark, or drawing; in fact, anything except secret writing.

At last there appears to be some probability of the railway companies taking up the important subject of a communication between the passengers and officials in a train. The directors of the London and South-Western Company have given instructions for a train of six carriages and two guards' vans to be fitted with the apparatus for providing telegraphic communication between passengers and guards, upon the same principle as that which was tested by Captain Tyler, of the Board of Trade. The train is intended to be worked for the ordinary traffic of the line.

A novel and ingenious mode of coupling railway carriages, &c., has been devised by Mr. Kirkman. The object of the contrivance, which consists of an ordinary "coupling," modified for the end in view, is to cut off the connection between the engine and carriages of a train, whenever the former runs off the rails, so as to prevent the latter being dragged after the engine over embankments or bridges. The ordinary "coupling" consists of drawbars, hooks, and right and left-handed screws, so as to bring the buffers of the carriages in a train close together. There are also safety chains, one on each side of the coupling. The improved apparatus comes into action the moment the engine or tender happens to diverge at a certain angle from the line of railway; the main "coupling" is then thrown out of gear and released from its hold; the spring bolts are driven back by the springs into the space which is left by the withdrawal of the bars; at the same time the safety chains are liberated from the eyebolts on the frame of the carriage, and the engine or tender is thus completely separated from the rest of the train.

From a sporting contemporary we learn that the artificial development of salmon is receiving every attention at Perth from those interested in fish-culture. At Stormontfield, a large wooden house has been erected, in which there are four sets of boxes, each set consisting of twenty-four divisions, and arranged like a double flight of stairs. Each box is first filled with coarse gravel, well boiled in order to expel insects, &c.; a layer of finer gravel is then added, and 3,000 ova are placed in the compartment. A jet of water falls from the supply pipe into the upper box, thence through a small opening into the second, and so on to the "post," when it passes out. Thus a current is continually kept up. The total quantity of ova in the boxes, about six weeks ago, was about 300,000, but a large addition will yet be made. The young fish, when three weeks old, will be conveyed to small streams, and then left to provide for themselves.

Although the *Lancet* is more a newspaper than a scientific periodical, and is notoriously more devoted to professional gossip than to the advancement of science (a province which is especially characteristic of the *Medical Times*), it is expected in these days of popularized philosophy that every journal which aims at a scientific reputation shall be at least familiar with the elements of science. It is therefore with no little surprise that we note the occurrence of the following curious statement in reference to tape-worms in the pages of our contemporary:—"A whole village has been known to be infected, after partaking of water containing the larva of this worm." It is evident from the context that the writer refers to the mature and sexual condition of the cestoid and not to the cystic stage. Indeed it would be impossible to discover the immediate entrance of the larva in the condition of cysticercous. Therefore it is clear that the writer was ignorant of the simplest points in the development of tape-worm. In fact, he seems to have imagined that the product of the ovum, or *proto-scolex*, was capable of being converted into the strobila without passing through the intermediate phase of *dento-scolex*. Such a blunder even on the part of a journal not professedly scientific is hardly pardonable; and we trust that our contemporary will in future, when writing upon Entozoa, pay a little more attention to the researches of Küchenmeister, Van Beulden, and Seuckart.

ETHNOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

ON Tuesday evening Professor Busk read a paper on the discovery of human remains and the bones of other animals in caves in the Rock of Gibraltar. Professor Busk, accompanied by the late Dr. Falconer, examined the caverns last year. He described, in the first place, the peculiar geological structure of Gibraltar. The rock is limestone, and extends about three miles from north to south, at an elevation varying from 1,400 to 1,200 feet, and its width is from three-quarters to half a mile. It is geologically divided into three nearly equal portions, by cleavages which separate the higher parts of the rock on the north, and on

the south from the central and lower part. The strata on the northern portion of the rock have been elevated from the original horizontal position towards the west; the middle part has been elevated in the same direction at a greater angle; and the angle of elevation of the strata in the southern part of the rock is still greater. At the southern face of the rock there is comparatively low ground, the windmill hill being about 400 feet above the level of the sea, but the strata there are inclined in an opposite direction to that of the great mass of what is called the Rock of Gibraltar, having been apparently, as Professor Busk said, turned over by some convulsion of nature. In the windmill rock several caverns have been discovered, some of them of great extent and depth, and in one of those caverns quantities of bones have been found mingled with pottery, flint implements, and charcoal, several of which were exhibited. The bones appear to have been deposited at different periods, and were found at various depths, the lowest being 14 feet below the floor of the cavern. Those in the lowest layer consisted of the bones of mammals, several of which were of extinct species. They were imbedded in ferruginous earth, and partially fossilized. They were covered with stalagmite, and among them no human bones were found. Above them were deposited the remains of about thirty human skeletons, with fragments of pottery, some flint implements, a quantity of charcoal, and a bronze fishing-hook. Some of the pottery had been turned in a lathe, and bore evidence of classic art. In another cavern, discovered under the foundations of the military prison, the remains of two skeletons had also been found that were not associated with other remains. Only one skull had been discovered there, and it had been sent to Professor Busk, who exhibited it; but it was remarkable that the lower jaw that had been sent with it did not belong to the skull; therefore there must have been another skull in the cavern, though no remains of it could be traced. Professor Busk stated that on various parts of Gibraltar there are indications of settlements by the Phoenicians and by the Romans; and, without expressing a decided opinion as to the way in which the human remains had been deposited or collected in the caverns, he inclined to attribute to them a date not far removed from the Christian era. With respect to the character of the human remains, he observed that there was nothing in the form of the skulls to distinguish them from modern Europeans, but the bones of the leg were remarkably compressed, for which appearance it was difficult to account, and since his attention had been directed to that peculiarity he had observed a similar compression in the leg-bones of other human skeletons which were known to be of great antiquity. Whether this peculiarity was attributable to disease, the perpetuation of which assumed a race character, or was produced by special occupations, or habit, was a question that he would not at present undertake to express an opinion upon.

Professor Huxley considered the compression of the leg-bones to indicate a race character, that had been induced originally either by habit or disease, and he took the opportunity of adducing the perpetuity of that peculiarity of structure indirectly as a confirmation of the Darwinian theory.

Dr. Donovan contended that if peculiarity in structure of the limbs can be transmitted from one generation to another, so also might peculiarity in the conformation of the brain; and he observed that the younger children of parents whose brain had undergone change by increased cultivation of the mental faculties are more intellectual than their elder brothers and sisters.

Mr. Crawfurd paid an appropriate eulogistic tribute to the late Dr. Falconer, who had been associated with Professor Busk in his investigations at Gibraltar.

After some observations from Mr. Lubbock, the president, the meeting adjourned to the 15th inst.

SCIENTIFIC MEETINGS. — Monday: — Royal Geographical Society, at 8.30 p.m., at Burlington House, Sir R. J. Murchison, K.C.B., President, in the chair.—1. "On the Basin of the River Mahanuddy." — By R. Temple, Esq.—2. "Visit to the Ruined Cities of Cambodia." — By Dr. Bastian, — Tuesday: — Zoological Society of London, at 8.30 p.m.—1. "Remarks on the Present State of our Knowledge of the British Species of *Salmo*." — By Dr. Gunther.—2. "On some Rare Birds' Eggs." — By Mr. A. Newton.—And other papers.—Institution of Civil Engineers, at 8 p.m.—"Giffard's Injector." — By Mr. John England, M. Inst. C.E.—Thursday: — Chemical Society, at 8 p.m.—1. "New Reaction for Preparing Anhydrides and Ethers." — By Mr. J. Broughton.—2. "Chemistry of Calabar Bean." — By Dr. Fraser.—3. "Action of Silicate and Carbonate of Soda on Cotton Fibre." — By Mr. Crace Calvert.—4. "New Electric Lamp Regulator," &c.—By Mr. S. Highley.—5. "Oxidation of India Rubber." — By Mr. J. Spiller.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

COMMERCIAL LAW.

WHILE the commerce of the country is developing at a rate which not only leaves nothing to be desired, but, in fact, exceeds the utmost anticipations of the most sanguine free-traders, there lurks a canker-worm at the root of all this prosperity, which, though it does not retard its progress materially, is daily destroying the energies of some busy worker in the commercial hive, and crushing all heart and life and hope out of him. This parasite has become acclimatized, and people look on the defeat of justice by

means of some legal quibble, or the non-observance of some trifling technicality, as a very necessary and unavoidable part of the British Constitution with which it would be dangerous to interfere. Unfortunately for commercial men, Lord Westbury, with all his willingness to play the part of law reformer, was born and bred an equity lawyer; and, with regard to law, he is supposed to know very little about anything lower down in the scale, if there can be anything lower, than the Court of Bankruptcy. Who can tell how often, when a ship fully insured has foundered at sea, the insurers have been enabled to resist the claim by means of one of those legal refinements which even men who have passed their time in studying the subject of maritime law find it difficult to provide against? How many, again, owe their ruin to an almost endless litigation as to the property in freight about which a non-legal mind would think there ought not to be a possibility of question, so long as ordinary attention is paid to the most common rules and business precautions.

We should weary our readers were we to attempt to enumerate the numberless shoals and quicksands which beset the track of the merchant and trader in every transaction of business. Let those who take an interest in the question turn to the very accurate reports of the proceedings in our law courts which appear every morning in the daily papers. Look, for instance, at the *Times* of Tuesday last, and let any man ask himself whether substantial justice was done in the case which was tried in the Court of Exchequer on the previous day, before Mr. Baron Martin, sitting at Nisi Prius. The action was brought by a farmer against the London and North-Western Railway as carriers, and the complaint was that the defendants had not delivered certain patented food for cattle within a reasonable time. The facts were as follows: — The plaintiff sent a quantity of the food to the defendants' station at Manchester, and engaged a truck to have it conveyed to East Grinstead, and delivered to a Mr. Scaife, a farmer in business there. The truck was eighteen days on its journey to East Grinstead, and in consequence of this delay, Mr. Scaife, the consignee, refused to continue his dealings with the plaintiff, on the ground that his cattle, if fed upon cake, required to be continuously fed upon it, and he would rather not run the risk of having to wait for a fresh supply when his old stock was exhausted. Since the delivery of the food in question to Mr. Scaife, he had expended a sum of £500 for cattle food-cake with some other person, which sum, he said, he should have paid to the plaintiff had he been sure that the cake would have been delivered within a reasonable time. Here a very substantial cause of action was disclosed. But it appeared, upon cross-examination of Mr. Scaife, that he, as consignee, was to pay the carriage; and the learned Baron decided that whatever damage the plaintiff might have received through the loss of Scaife's custom, the plaintiff was not the proper person to bring the action, and therefore must be nonsuited.

Thus, through a mere formality, justice miscarried. The science of pleading and its exquisite niceties were, it is true, vindicated, but only at the cost of truth and right. This, however, is only one out of hundreds of cases in which the intricate law regulating the carrying trade of the country is supposed to be administered on some sublime principle, which, whatever may be its merits, seems, to an uninitiated mind, to mean that carriers may monopolize the means of transit, and levy tolls on the public for the carriage of goods; but whenever it suits their convenience to neglect their business, and lose or destroy the goods entrusted to their care, some subtlety is sure to be dug out of the old law-books, by means of which the defaulter is screened and the trader sacrificed. The expense of such proceedings as these are often enough to ruin a young merchant or tradesman. The result is, that, rather than incur the risk of an attempt to enforce a just claim, men abstain from the luxury of law, and both lawyers and law fall under condemnation.

We have been for many years contending for the right to sell our landed property without the necessity of wading through volumes of parchments which date back to the early generations of some Adam Black, who was the ancestor of some other Black from whom our great-uncle purchased the same property twenty years ago, and we have but just obtained this privilege by the passing of the Land Registration Act, after a very hard fight with the prejudices and habits of the whole legal profession. The commercial world have for some years been better off in regard to shipping, the conveyance and mortgaging of which is simplified and formulated by special Acts of Parliament, which are admitted to work well. But in other respects, as we have said, there are numberless instances in which the state of our commercial law is a disgrace to us as a great commercial people. We claim to be the head of nations, and we enact day by day scenes of injustice, under the name of law and under the pretence of adhering to principle, which would disgrace a community of Hottentots.

If Lord Palmerston's Government would only deal with the question of Law Reform as it deserves, they might close the session which has just commenced with a series of measures which would act on the commerce of the country almost as beneficially as free trade itself. We are encompassed and harassed by legal technicalities at every step. A man cannot move without the fear of a lawsuit before his eyes. But if any think the "promised land," of which the *Times* speaks, is to be reached within the next two or three generations, the question must be taken up by the non-legal members of the House of Commons. They must not be deterred by any charge of meddling with subjects they do not understand; they must deal with the subjects before them as best they can. We have great confidence in the virtue of common sense on all such

questions, and we would rather have rough and ready justice than the refined cruelty of scientific law.

THE quotation of gold at Paris is about 1 per mille premium, and the short exchange on London is 25·17½ per £1 sterling. On comparing these rates with the English Mint price of £3. 17s. 10½d. per ounce for standard gold, it appears that gold is about 1-10th per cent. dearer in Paris than in London.

By advices from Hamburg the price of gold is 423 per mark, and the short exchange on London is 13·4½ per £1 sterling. Standard gold at the English Mint price is therefore about 1-10th per cent. dearer in London than in Hamburg.

Sir William Russell, Bart., M.P., Charlton Park, Gloucestershire, and Henry Moor, Esq., M.P., Brighton, have joined the board of the Registered Land Company (Limited).

A new railway has been announced and the prospectus issued, under the title of the Metropolitan District Railways, Southern Connecting Lines, starting from the Kensington Station of the Metropolitan and West London lines. It is proposed to pass through Brompton and Pimlico by the Victoria Station and the Houses of Parliament, along the Thames Embankment, parallel to the Strand and Fleet-street, to a station near the Bank of England, a total distance of about six miles. There can be no doubt of the great importance of this scheme, and certainly the directors are justified in regarding their prospects favourably from our experience of the existing metropolitan line. We notice, however, that "a guarantee contract secures the construction of the works for a fixed sum, which includes interest at 5 per cent. per annum on all capital paid-up during construction, and on shares paid up in advance at 6 per cent." This we think unsatisfactory. Of course, "the fixed sum" paid to the contractors must necessarily include this so-called interest during construction on paid-up capital. An arrangement of this nature, therefore, appears to us simply paying back to the shareholders that portion of the subscribed capital over and above that actually needed to carry out the design. The want of judgment on the part of the public, which makes such an arrangement possible, is greatly to be deplored. If a legitimate undertaking of a beneficial public character depends in ever so small a measure for its support upon a principle radically false, it would, we think, be wiser in men of position not to lend themselves to an unsound financial arrangement.

The movements of the precious metals during the past week have been of an extensive character as regards the imports, which have amounted to about £552,505, including £104,020 from Australia by the *Monarch*, £8,048 by the *Royal Dane*, £43,644 by the *Star of Peace*, £17,200 by the *Omar Pasha*, and £39,200 by the *Lincolnshire*. The *Atrato*, from the West Indies and the Pacific, has brought £200,673; the *Asia*, from Boston, £22,700; the *New York*, from New York, £6,100; the *Edinburgh*, £81,000; and the *China*, £14,167. The *Nyanza*, from Alexandria, has also arrived with £750; and about £15,000 in silver has been received from the Continent. The exports have been £46,605 to the West Indies, by the *Tasmanian*; £90,781 to the East Indies and China, by the *Pera*; and there have been remittances to the Continent through private sources estimated at about £95,000; the total amounting to £232,386.

Cleaver's Patent Portland Cement and Suffolk Brick Company (Limited) have issued their prospectus. The capital is £60,000 in 12,000 shares of £5 each. The company propose to secure the services of Mr. John Cleaver, as manager, and to manufacture Portland Cement, under the patent recently awarded him.

The directors of the London and South-Western Railway Company have resolved to recommend to the proprietors, at the half-yearly general meeting on the 16th instant, that the dividend for the half-year ending 31st of December, 1864, be at the rate of 5½ per cent. per annum on the ordinary capital stock of the company.

The following is a summary of the present position of the Cotton Market compared with the corresponding period of last year:— Increase of imports, 36,590 bales; decrease of quantity taken for consumption, 19,140 bales; increase of stock, 237,550 bales; increase of quantity taken for export, 3,142 bales; cotton at sea (for the kingdom), 326,000 bales.

The deliveries in London in the Tea trade estimated for the week were 1,122,177lb, which is a decrease of 105,334lb as compared with the previous statement.

In the port of London last week the general business exhibited rather more activity at the Custom House. 211 vessels were reported as having arrived from foreign ports—there were two from Ireland, but no colliers. The entries outwards comprised 113 vessels, and those cleared 107, of which 24 were despatched in ballast. The departures for the Australian colonies have been 7 vessels—viz., 2 to Port Phillip, 2 to New Zealand, 1 to Sydney, 1 to Adelaide, and 1 to Swan River—with an aggregate tonnage of 5,897.

The General Provident Assurance Company, which originally appeared under the Joint-Stock Company's Act, have determined to enlarge its base of operations by incorporation under the Companies Act of 1862. The capital is to be £500,000, in 50,000 shares of £10 each. A novel feature, noticeable in the prospectus, is the appointment of a Homoeopathic referee, for the benefit of those of the assured who have for the past five years been treated homoeopathically, who are to be classed in a distinct section. Taking this in connection with the fact that the Queen of Spain has conferred

the title of Marquis on a Homoeopathic Physician, Dr. Nunez, in "recognition of his services and merits," we must suppose that the belief in the principles of the Homoeopathic system is extending itself.

THE *Paris Courier Financier* contains the following on the affairs of Mexico:—"The Mexican loan has been occupying attention for some time past. Rumours of every description are current respecting the new loan, which would be brought out by Messrs. Hottinger, Maruard, & Mallet Brothers. The French Government would not work the resources of Sonora themselves, but would cede it to a large company, which would pay an annual royalty of \$15,000,000, to be remitted to France until the extinction of the claim of this country, after which the yearly sum will be payable to Mexico. The same company would construct the Tehuantepec Railroad, and buy up the remaining portion of the Mexican loan. It is not surprising, then, that the Mexican loan should be sought after. All these arrangements can only result in very favourable combinations for this State's fund."

LETTERS from Paris state that the inquiry which Government intended to institute relative to the banks and other financial institutions is either abandoned or indefinitely postponed. The *Patrie* denies that the inquiry has been abandoned, and adds that the first sitting of the committee will shortly take place.

IT is reported that the Prefect of the Seine has declared to the Municipal Council that, in order to complete all the works commenced and projected in Paris, it will be necessary to expend a sum of 400,000,000f. Out of that sum 300,000,000f. are to be voted by the Municipal Council, and 100,000,000f. by the State.

THE *Moniteur* of Monday last contains an imperial decree officially promulgating the convention concluded between France and Prussia on December 27 last, respecting the charges on telegraphic despatches between the two countries. By the terms of the decree, which have already been made known, the rates of charges are to be uniform, and are to be considerably reduced.

THE Italian Government has awarded a prize and cotton seed in abundance to twenty-four landholders of the Roman Campagna, for their last experiments in cotton cultivation. Several prelates and two religious orders figure on the list of cultivators. Specimens of the cotton obtained have been presented to the Pope. In order to secure to the city of Turin direct railway communication with the Mediterranean, the Government has granted a guarantee of 6 per cent. on the capital of the lines between Turin, Savona, and Acqui.

THE Spanish Ministry having obtained a large majority in the election of the members of the committee appointed by the Congress to examine the bill for the forced loan, it is believed that no change in the Cabinet will take place.

THE bill brought forward by the Prussian Government in the Chamber of Deputies fixes the annual military contingent at the proportion of 11 in every 1,000 of the male population. The Minister of Marine has requested authority to contract a loan of £9,000,000 for the construction of a fleet.

WE extract the following from the *Calcutta Overland Englishman* of Jan. 6:—"Money being in better demand, the Bank of Bengal yesterday raised its rates 2 per cent. all round, which has but slightly affected all markets. The season is now so far advanced, so much produce has gone forward, and so much bullion is on its way, remittances by Government bills inclusive, that money is expected to be rather easy during the next month. Government paper was improving, but the advance of the rate of interest sent these securities back, with all other joint-stock shares. The Bank of Bengal has declared a dividend of 10 per cent. per annum on the doubled capital. Exchange has also improved, and credit bills are quoted at 2s. 1½d.; documentary, 2s. 1½d."

THE cash balances in the Government treasuries in India at the end of last October were Rs. 9,91,09,665, against Rs. 13,19,94,896 at the same date in previous year, and Rs. 15,94,99,372 at the same date in 1862.

THE whole railway line from Umritsur to Mooltan is completed, and has been traversed by trains. The line is to be opened for traffic this month.

MR. HENFREY, of the firm of Brassey & Co., has arrived at Delhi, to arrange for the construction of the railway line between that city and Umritsur, which is to be completed within three years.

THE Thull Ghaut Incline was officially opened by his Excellency the Governor of Bombay on the 30th December.

IN the Canadian Parliament, Mr. Galt, the Finance Minister, brought down a message from his Excellency the Governor-General, transmitting the estimates for the current year, in which is included some \$50,000 in gold, to make good the money improperly surrendered in the case of the St. Albans raiders, and claimed by the Government of the United States under the Extradition Treaty.

THE steam-ship *Atlanta* has arrived at New York from Mobile, bringing 1,000 bales of cotton on account of the Confederate Government. The proceeds of the sale of the cotton are to be expended in purchasing blankets, clothing, &c., for the Confederate prisoners in the Northern States. The *Atlanta* brought no important news from Mobile. General Grainger's forces were still in the vicinity of East Pascagoula.

IT is stated that four cargoes of the cotton seized at Savannah were expected to reach New York very shortly. As soon as 1,000 bales had been received the sales would commence.

IN the Federal House of Representatives, the Army Bill reported from the Committee of Ways and Means appropriates \$511,280,000, of which \$200,000,000 is for the pay of volunteers, \$93,000,000 for subsistence, \$50,000,000 for quartermasters' supplies, \$10,000,000 for incidental expenses, \$21,000,000 for horses, \$50,000,000 for clothing and equipage, \$30,000,000 for transportation, \$3,500,000 for armament of fortifications, \$20,000,000 for ordnance stores, \$3,500,000 for armament of the national army, and \$2,500,000 for gunpowder and lead. The appropriation made last year for the army amounted to \$670,000,000, including \$90,000,000 of deficiency.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

THE REFORM BILL OF 1832.*

A HISTORY of the struggle for the Reform Bill of 1832 comes very opportunely at the present time. Whatever may be the opinions upon the merits of the question, few observant politicians doubt that the representation of the people will engage a considerable share of the attention of the next Parliament. It is scarcely possible that the public should continue apathetic and indifferent in regard to a matter on which the leaders of both the great parties in the State have admitted that further legislation is necessary. Foreign affairs have during the last few years been of absorbing interest, and party exigencies and party convenience have long thrust domestic questions into the background; but there are already obvious indications of a reaction. The time is rapidly approaching when a new hearing must be given to the unenfranchised masses. On the eve of a new agitation, it is both interesting and useful to trace the rise and progress of the last great constitutional struggle, and to obtain some knowledge of the principal events which marked its course. Before Mr. Molesworth's work appeared, we do not know of any place where this information could have been conveniently obtained. The histories of England since the peace of 1815, written by Miss Martineau and Sir Archibald Alison, are necessarily less full and detailed than is desirable in their treatment of this particular period; while Mr. Roebuck's history of Earl Grey's Administration is rendered utterly unreliable by his bitter antipathy to the Whig leaders. Mr. Molesworth gives us very much what we want. It is too early for anyone to write the history, in the highest sense of the word, of a time so near our own. But we have in the book before us a carefully compiled and clearly written narrative of the events of the Reform conflict; and, although the author does not conceal his sympathy with the popular side, he is generally fair and candid towards all parties. He is not prejudiced or bigoted either in his political views or in his personal likes and dislikes. It would be too much to say that his work is distinguished by any conspicuous literary qualities; but it is nevertheless, within the limits we have mentioned, a very creditable performance.

Mr. Molesworth commences by noticing the various projects of reform which preceded the bill of 1831. Making its appearance first of all in the Long Parliament, and then under the Protectorate, the question slumbered for a long time until it was taken up by Sir Francis Dashwood in 1745. The elder Pitt then opposed its consideration in "this hour of danger and difficulty, when rebellion rages in the kingdom, and an invasion from France is expected," on the ground that it would tend to divert public attention from matters of more pressing importance. He was not, however, opposed to Parliamentary Reform, as was proved by a remarkable speech which he delivered in 1770 on a motion by the Marquis of Rockingham. The younger Pitt, in the early part of his career, was an avowed and, we believe, a perfectly sincere reformer. But he shared the panic caused by the French revolution, and became the uncompromising opponent of the changes he had formerly advocated. "The standard which Mr. Pitt had flung away was taken up by Mr. Grey," who presented to the House of Commons, in 1793, the celebrated petition of "the friends of the people." For a short time, the new leader was supported by a strong popular feeling; but, as the French republicans plunged deeper and deeper into their wild excesses, the people became more and more averse to political change. The war absorbed the attention of the nation, and the friends of reform in Parliament, having no support out of doors, desisted from a discussion that was hopeless and useless. It was not until 1819—a time of severe national distress—that the question was again stirred, by Sir Francis Burdett and Lord John Russell. Neither succeeded in carrying the resolution he proposed; nor did they even excite any earnest or active discussion of the subject. Lord John Russell was equally unsuccessful in carrying the measure which he introduced in the same year for the disfranchisement of Grampound, and the transfer of its members to some populous place. Again was the question shelved for several years. In the first session of 1830, more than one motion was made, and Lord John Russell endeavoured to introduce a bill for the enfranchisement of Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds. The Tories were, indeed, still determined, and had still the power to resist every proposal of the kind; but indications were not wanting that the Reform question was making way both in the House and in the country. Before Parliament met again in the winter of the same year, two very unfortunate events happened. George IV. died, and the revolution of 1830 placed Louis Philippe on the throne of France. The latter event caused immense excitement throughout Europe; and in England it led to a loud and general demand for Parliamentary Reform. Almost as soon as the two Houses met, which was in November, the Duke of Wellington made his celebrated declaration against all reform whatever; but, a few days later, he and his colleagues were compelled to resign in consequence of being defeated on a motion of Sir H. Parnell's relating to the Civil List.

Earl Grey immediately accepted office, and formed an administration on the basis of a large measure of Parliamentary Reform. The cause which the noble earl had embraced while yet a very young man he was now to conduct to a triumphant issue;—to an

issue, indeed, far more triumphant than he could possibly have dreamt of since his earliest hopes were disappointed in 1793. Indeed, nothing, we think, can be more clear than that a very moderate degree of wisdom and foresight on the part of the Tory statesmen would have averted the necessity of passing so sweeping a measure as the Reform Bill. A few pocket boroughs disfranchised, and a few large constituencies enfranchised, between 1820 and 1830, would probably have satisfied the middle classes for a considerable period; and, by throwing similar sops to public opinion from time to time, the reform of the representation might have been rendered a very protracted and gradual process indeed. It may be very plausibly argued that this would have been a great advantage; and we are not insensible to the evil of such a sudden and decisive breaking away from the old traditions of Parliament as was effected by the Reform Act. But there is, on the other side, a consideration which is perfectly conclusive. The landed interest chose, in 1815, to identify their predominance with a protective duty on corn. By that duty they would certainly have stood to the end, if they had retained anything like their former predominance in the House of Commons. It was therefore absolutely necessary that the constitution of Parliament should be so radically changed as to secure for the town populations a commanding, if not preponderant, influence in that assembly. Every one can see what an enormous advantage it was, that, when the agitation for the repeal of the Corn Laws came, it was not combined with another agitation for political change. In that case, it would probably have resulted in modifications more democratic than those which were made in 1832; and those who look at the subject from a Conservative point of view have cause to be contented, both with the stupidity of the Tory successors of Mr. Pitt, and with the judicious and timely boldness of the Whig successors of Mr. Fox. To the latter, indeed, it appears to us that the highest credit is due. It is true that Earl Grey could not have avoided introducing some measure of reform; the country called for one in a manner which brooked no denial. But the new premier might have tried a timid and temporizing policy; might have sought to conciliate opponents, instead of satisfying friends. It is the peculiar merit of Earl Grey to have seen clearly that, as matters stood, nothing but a really large and comprehensive measure would be of the slightest use; and, seeing this, to have acted upon his conviction with boldness, and with unfaltering resolution.

Of the mode in which the Reform Bill was framed, Mr. Molesworth gives the following account:

"Earl Grey assigned the task of framing this important measure to a committee composed of Lord Durham, Lord Duncannon, Lord J. Russell, and Sir J. Graham. To this committee, Lord Durham and Lord J. Russell both brought outlines of the schemes which appeared to them best calculated to meet the expectations of the nation and the requirements of the times. Lord Durham proposed that the country should be divided into electoral districts. Lord J. Russell, whose plan was sketched on a small piece of note paper, proposed that fifty of the smallest boroughs should be totally disfranchised; that fifty more should in future return one member instead of two; that the seats thus gained should be transferred to counties and large towns; that the qualification for voting should be the payment of a certain rental, the amount of which was left blank, in order that it might be the subject of future deliberation, and which, as we shall see, was subsequently fixed at £10. Lord J. Russell's plan was adopted by the committee, but, in deference to the opinion of Lord Durham, it was so far modified, that instead of the arbitrary number of fifty being selected for disfranchisement or semi-disfranchisement, it was determined that all towns which, by the census of 1821, had fewer than 2,000 inhabitants, should be disfranchised entirely; and that all towns having a population of between 2,000 and 4,000 persons should be disfranchised partially. Finding that the amount of disfranchisement would be pretty nearly the same on this system as on his own original plan, Lord J. Russell assented to this modification, not, however, without some misgivings, which were abundantly justified by the event. In the discussions which subsequently took place he had repeated reasons to repent that he had not more strongly resisted this suggestion, which was eventually set aside in favour of one nearly identical with that which he originally suggested. The plan agreed on by the committee was submitted to the cabinet, by whom it was received, not only with unanimity, but with enthusiasm."

On the 1st of March, 1831, the much-expected bill was introduced into the House of Commons by Lord John Russell. "By the great body of the people it was hailed with enthusiasm." All other plans of reform were at once put aside; all criticisms on points of detail were suppressed; all complaints of short-comings and imperfections were silenced. The cry was simply for "the bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill." Of the debates in Parliament which followed the introduction of the measure, and accompanied its progress, Mr. Molesworth gives a very full account, condensing and abstracting the principal speeches on both sides with considerable skill and perfect fairness. Unfortunately, he has spoiled both the interest and the usefulness of this part of his work by omitting all reference to the great speeches of Macaulay and Brougham, for reasons which, on reconsideration, we think he will himself feel to be quite insufficient. We must, of course, refer to the book itself for an account of these discussions; and we cannot do more than refer in the briefest manner to two or three of the more important crises in its fate. It passed the second reading by a majority of one; but on the morning of the 22nd of April it was practically defeated by the adoption of General Gascoyne's amendment on the motion for going into committee. The Ministers were not long in deciding on their course. On the very same day,

* The History of the Reform Bill of 1832. By the Rev. W. N. Molesworth, M.A., Incumbent of St. Clement's, Rochdale, Author of the Prize Essay on the French Alliance, &c. &c. London: Chapman & Hall. Manchester: Ireland & Co.

they met and determined that Parliament should be immediately dissolved. Earl Grey and Lord Brougham waited forthwith upon the King, and communicated to him the advice of the Cabinet.

"Earl Grey, the pink and pattern of loyalty and chivalrous courtesy, shrank from the disagreeable errand, and requested his bolder and less courtly colleague to introduce the subject, begging him at the same time to manage the susceptibility of the king as much as possible.

"The Chancellor accordingly approached the subject very carefully, prefacing the disagreeable message with which he was charged, with a compliment on the king's desire to promote the welfare of his people. He then proceeded to communicate the advice of the cabinet, adding, that they were unanimous in offering it.

"'What!' exclaimed the king, 'would you have me dismiss in this summary manner a parliament which has granted me so splendid a civil list, and given my queen so liberal an annuity in case she survives me?'

"'No doubt, sire,' Lord Brougham replied, 'in these respects they have acted wisely and honourably, but your Majesty's advisers are all of opinion, that in the present state of affairs, every hour that this parliament continue to sit is pregnant with danger to the peace and security of your kingdom, and they humbly beseech your Majesty to go down this very day and prorogue it. If you do not, they cannot be answerable for the consequences.'

"The king was greatly embarrassed; he evidently entertained the strongest objection to the proposed measure, but he also felt the danger which would result from the resignation of his ministers at the present crisis. He therefore shifted his ground, and asked—'Who is to carry the sword of state and the cap of maintenance?'

"'Sire, knowing the urgency of the crisis and the imminent peril in which the country at this moment stands, we have ventured to tell those whose duty it is to perform these and similar offices, to hold themselves in readiness.'

"'But the troops, the life guards, I have given no order for them to be called out, and now it is too late.'

"This was indeed a serious objection, for to call out the guards was the special prerogative of the monarch himself, and no minister had any right to order their attendance without his express command.

"'Sire,' replied the Chancellor, with some hesitation, 'we must throw ourselves on your indulgence. Deeply feeling the gravity of the crisis, and knowing your love for your people, we have taken a liberty which nothing but the most imperious necessity could warrant; we have ordered out the troops, and we humbly throw ourselves on your Majesty's indulgence.'

"The king's eye flashed, and his cheek became crimson. He was evidently on the point of dismissing the ministry in an explosion of anger. 'Why, my lords,' he exclaimed, 'this is treason! high treason, and you, my Lord Chancellor, ought to know that it is.'

"'Yes, sire, I do know it, and nothing but the strongest conviction that your Majesty's crown and the interests of the nation are at stake, could have induced us to take such a step, or to tender the advice we are now giving.'

"This submissive reply had the desired effect; the king cooled, his prudence and better genius prevailed, and having once made up his mind to yield, he yielded with a good grace."

After scenes of very unusual violence in both Houses, Parliament was dissolved, to the delight of the people, who celebrated the event by illuminations through the country. In the new Parliament (which met in July), the reformers had a very large majority; but the opponents of the measure did not lose courage. They fought every detail with the utmost pertinacity; and it was not until the 3rd of October, 1831, that the bill reached its second reading in the House of Lords. On the 8th, it was rejected by a majority of 41. Of the agitation to which this led throughout the country, Mr. Molesworth gives an animated description. The nation trembled on the very verge of a revolution; and indeed it is probable that this was only averted by the steadfastness of the Ministry and the confidence which was consequently reposed in them. No time was lost. Parliament met again on the 6th of December; on the 12th, the bill was once more introduced; and on the 9th of April, 1832, it once more came on for a second reading in the House of Lords. This time, their lordships did not venture to reject the measure; the safer plan of emasculating it was to be tried. But immediately Lord Lyndhurst won his first victory in committee, Earl Grey resigned. The King in vain tried to replace him. No one ventured to face the people; for everyone could see that the instalment of a Tory Ministry in office would be the signal for extensive outbreaks, if not of general rebellion. The danger was happily averted by the recall of Earl Grey to office, with a written promise from the King that he should have power "to create such a number of peers as will be sufficient to ensure the passing of the Reform Bill." It did not become necessary to use this privilege; for, at the instance of the King, a number of the Opposition peers stayed away from the House, and allowed the third reading to be carried on the 4th of June. The royal assent was given by commission immediately afterwards:—

"The bill, thus at length adopted by the legislature, swept away fifty-six nomination boroughs, returning 112 members, semi-disfranchised thirty more, making a sum-total of disfranchisement of 142 seats in the lower House of Parliament. It gave the counties sixty-five additional representatives, and conferred the right of sending members to the House of Commons on Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, and thirty-nine other large and flourishing towns previously unrepresented. On the other hand, it greatly impaired the direct influence of the working classes in the elections, by diminishing the number of the franchises in Preston and other towns, where, before the Reform Bill was carried, the suffrage was nearly universal."

This is not the place for discussing the merits of the Reform Bill, or for considering how far its provisions require amendment and extension. But this we may venture to say of it—that, while it did the work of a revolution, it has made revolutions for the future impossible in England. It established conclusively the supremacy of public opinion, and will for ever mark an era in our constitutional history.

GERMAN RATIONALISM.*

In the translator's excellent introduction to this volume, we are informed that the first book which Professor Tholuck puts into the hands of a young man who wishes to become acquainted with the history of Christianity in its relation to the recent literature of Germany is this work of Dr. Hagenbach, the well-known author of the "History of Doctrines." The wisdom of such advice can hardly, we think, fail to be appreciated by all who will bestow a careful perusal on the contents of our author's sketch of German Rationalism as exhibited in the express teaching of theologians, and indicated in the writings of philosophers and poets. The Germans, with all their daring speculations and dreamy imaginings, are still at the bottom a profoundly religious people: whatever their theological creed be, it is sure to tinge their writing on any subject they may handle; and hence their literature, in a greater degree than that of any other European country, represents with accuracy and fulness the successive phases of religion, thought, and feeling, that have manifested themselves in their country. Besides, among no other people has the system of free thought on religious matters developed itself with such completeness. Being throughout of a distinctively intellectual character, Rationalism may be traced in its various stages, and shown to exhibit as logical a sequence and regular method as any philosophical system can present. There is less disturbance from emotional and political causes observable in Germany than in France, or perhaps in England. And once more, what invests this history with a peculiar interest for us is the fact of its being the record of a struggle which, closed in Germany, is little more than beginning in England. What the Germans were in one respect a hundred years ago, we are now. The same discontent with the old forms of religious thought, the same chafing of reason against faith, the same demands of a searching criticism to be applied to the text and contents of Revelation, the same anxiety to place religion on a safer footing than is afforded either by the Bible or the Church—these and many other characteristic tendencies of our day were to be found arising in Germany rather more than a century ago. Within that period, all these tendencies have worked themselves out in their various ways, and Rationalism, in the end discredited and rejected, has, it would appear, given way before a revived orthodoxy. Now, if all these things have happened for an ensample, there can be no subject of deeper interest to Englishmen of our day than the examination of the stage of thought on these topics corresponding to our own. In fact, the present movement of religious speculation in our country can hardly be understood without reference to the only one in history which resembles it; and for this reason in particular we feel grateful to the two translators who have made this admirable sketch of Dr. Hagenbach's accessible to all English readers.

We are very apt to forget that the last (and what promises to be the greatest) struggle of the Christian faith against unbelief had its first beginning in England. It was unquestionably the English deism of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries that made the first assaults on the system of doctrine and belief established by the Reformation. When we point to Halle and Weimar and Berlin as the cradles of our modern scepticism, we seldom recollect that Morgan and Tyndal, Hobbes and Bolingbroke, originated the movement, which only reached Germany through the influence of Voltaire, at the Court of Frederick the Great. And now it would seem that the great wave of the theological earthquake, after having propagated itself through France and Germany, is returning to its original starting-point in our own land—whether to produce the same results as abroad, or to inflict an even deeper injury on the national faith, time alone can show, and the way in which the shock is met must in a great degree determine. We think our readers, after listening to Dr. Hagenbach, will, on the whole, be inspired with more hopefulness than alarm.

Whatever influence the flippant, scoffing unbelief of Voltaire may have exercised on Frederick and his Court, it was not of a nature to penetrate the heart of the deep-thinking, earnest, German people. It was reserved for philosophy to achieve with them what no sneers could ever have effected. The theories of Leibnitz and Wolf, half speculative, half theological, first taught their countrymen to look for new foundations of faith and morality outside of the Bible and the Church. Though not hostile to Revelation in themselves, they yet invented a method that was easily turned against it. If God and morality could be found in the human reason, where (it might be asked) was the need of a Revelation of that which could be apprehended without it? The age was proud of its discovery, and religion became less and less regarded in the light of a faith leading to a devoted life, and more and more as a dry system of morality grounded on and discovered by the cultivated reason. At the same time, the spirit of criticism had awakened in men like Michaelis and Aernesti; the sacred records were freely handled;

* German Rationalism, in its Rise, Progress, and Decline. A Contribution to the Church History of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries. By Dr. K. R. Hagenbach, Professor of Theology in the University of Basle. Translated. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark.

the accommodation theory of Semler, and the unsparing dissection of both the Old and New Testament revelations by the author of the "Wolfenbüttel Fragments," paved the way for a neology which, rejecting large portions of the Bible, and holding itself independent altogether of the doctrines of the Church, complacently reposed on the truths of natural religion as adequate to the spiritual needs, and alone satisfactory to the intellectual demands, of men. Still, however, till after the days of Lessing the rationalistic spirit had not spread beyond the few highly-cultivated minds of the nation. As long as education remained in the hands of the Church, the body of the people could not be much affected by the learned disquisitions and exalted speculations of an intellectual aristocracy. But about the time of the French Revolution, and the appearance of Rousseau's famous treatise, "Emile," the new scepticism wielded by men like Basedow and Nicolai invaded the schools and the public press—supplanted the old methods of instruction consisting of little beside the Catechism and a smattering of the classical languages—and laid down schemes for scientific cultivation which tended to exclude all positive religious instruction, and to base morality on the natural instincts of the human soul. The new turn thus given to popular education soon wrought its natural effects in all ranks of the nation. Scepticism and utilitarianism ingrained themselves in the minds of clergy and people alike; and when sermons touched on no higher topics than the advantages of scientific tillage or the ill effects of lawsuits, or (as the story runs upon one occasion) the approved methods of feeding cattle viewed in connection with the Christmas association of the manger, it could no longer be doubtful what mischief the so-called "enlightenment" had in a very short time spread among preachers and hearers equally. Things had now reached their worst: if Christianity was not to expire altogether, a new aspect of it must be presented, a new tone be adopted in the handling of it, and a new reverence for its doctrines be inspired into the popular mind, which for twenty years had been systematically trained in the art of disbelieving and deriding the supernatural.

If we did not feel sure that Dr. Hagenbach's volume would meet with many readers, we should feel more regret than we do at being unable to follow him through the next portion of his treatise, which can hardly be surpassed for brevity and clearness, and for the skill with which the main points in the great works of the Augustan age of German literature are brought out by way of illustrating their relation, direct or indirect, to Christianity. How much Germany owes to her philosophers for reconstructing her religious system when all but overthrown by the scoffing of Nicolai, and the profanity of Bahrdt, is admirably set forth in a compass of little more than 200 pages. The distinctively religious tendencies of Herder's writings, the influence of Kant's philosophy in identifying religion with the law of duty, and inculcating a pure and lofty morality, together with the belief in immortality and future retribution, the aspirations after God and truth to be apprehended through intuition or feeling, which breathe almost through every page of the visionary systems of Schelling, Fichte, and Jacobi, and then—as the fruit of all this diversified speculation—the rise of the philosophical theologian, Schleiermacher, to give a new impulse to Protestantism, and place it in its true relations to faith and science,—these various stages of progressive restoration are severally marked and illustrated by our author in a spirit of deep sympathy with all that is pure in religion and true and noble in philosophy. The whole dissertation forms a most valuable contribution to the Church history of the last hundred years. No period demands such erudition and discrimination from the writer who attempts to describe it. From the multitude of works to be examined, from the independent tone of their authors, from the close interpenetration of their theological and scientific views, from the coexistence, in many cases, of a destructive criticism with a constructive philosophy, the task of analyzing the various tendencies, and collecting them into a single focus, is one demanding the very highest qualifications of intellect and sympathy, to which few minds out of Germany would be able to attain, and perhaps none in it but the large-hearted and deeply-learned author of the "History of Doctrine."

One question can hardly fail to arise at the close of our brief notice of the "History of German Rationalism." Has the movement, after all, been confined to a single section of the Universal Church? or is it one that springs from the necessary development of the human mind, and which therefore must in the end affect, if it has not already affected, the belief of Romanists no less than Protestants? Our author, though touching but lightly on this point, seems to incline decidedly toward the last of these suggestions. One passage, however, as bearing on this point, we cannot forbear to quote:—

"The Catholic theology of Germany has run through the same course of development with the Protestant. Side by side in both, by a cold and negative rationalism, has been a spiritual-minded mysticism; in both the critical method, idealism and pantheism, have had their adherents. Biblical criticism, too, and the study of ancient manners and customs first awakened at the great Reformation, were largely prosecuted among Catholic schools; and the Protestant received instruction from the lips of Hug and Jahn, of Möhler and Frantz Baader; while the Catholic learned of Schleiermacher, of Lücke, and Neander. There was some crossing of swords, it is true, but it was not a mere affair of fencing; science was advanced; and although some passion entered of course, yet mutual regard was engendered, and the fire of the older polemics was quenched."

We think that here and elsewhere, perhaps, Dr. Hagenbach may have a little over-rated the influence of German rationalism on the

rival Church. It is true that, from the deeper spirit of religiousness in the nation, and still more from being nursed in the same philosophical atmosphere, Catholics and Protestants in Germany display less antagonism towards each other than either in France or England. But, so long as the attitude towards the results of modern thought, taken up by himself and ordained for all true sons of the Church by its Infallible Head in his recent Encyclical Letter, remains the same, we cannot see what means Catholicism has, even in Germany, of modifying itself, or shaping its beliefs to the intellect as well as faith of the age. At the same time, if the counsels of the Vatican should even allow of change, and the gulf between the rival churches stand any chance of thus being narrowed in the coming years, it will certainly not be to the ignorant and violent priesthood of Italy, nor to the ultramontane fanaticism of the clergy of France, but to the cultivated, thoughtful, and pious ecclesiastics of Germany, to men of the spirit and calibre of Sailer and Jahn, of Möhler and Dollinger, that we may most reasonably look for aid in the work of reconciliation and co-operation.

EVENINGS IN ARCADIA.*

THE John Dennis of old, who wrote plays, and invented stage-thunder, and got into fiery contests with Pope, and in his old age melted into unwanted tenderness and eulogium over Thomson, for the trouble he had taken in getting up a benefit for him (if, indeed, the verses were really his, and not Savage's, as they are said to have been), was a critic of a very different order from the Mr. John Dennis who writes this chronicle of his "Evenings in Arcadia." Dennis of the "Dunciad" was a most ferocious wielder of the critical tomahawk; the present Mr. Dennis is of a gentle and good-natured disposition, and loves to admire better than to find fault. His volume is a collection of literary conversations, in which three friends take part. The supposed author, and a fellow Londoner equally interested in poets and poetry, make holiday by going down to the house of one Hartley, who lives at Lynton, in North Devon, where they spend their time very pleasantly in walking about the beautiful lanes and meadows and hill-sides during the day, and sitting in judgment on poets during the evening. In these wit-combats, Hartley seems to be the chief dogmatizer; but his friends Stanley and Talbot also contribute very fairly to the miscellany of gossip and opinion. A work constructed on so desultory a plan, containing three separate points of view on most of the matters started for discussion, is of course deficient in unity of purpose and concentration of interest. It is a chatting-book; but it is agreeable chatting. The author is not a deep, nor always a very exact, critic; but he has an elegant perception of poetical truth and beauty, and, though he never satisfies the mind nor exhausts the latent capabilities of his subjects, he often furnishes food for thought, and starts ideas which the reader must run down for himself. This prevalent incompleteness is frequently annoying. Some opinion contrary to accepted views is intimated by one of the speakers; a few observations in support of the opinion are thrown out; and then, just as our curiosity is piqued and stimulated, the conversation drifts off to something else, and we are left to abandon the topic altogether, or to think out an essay in our own minds on the premises thus laid down. The superiority of our modern to our older poets in the representation of natural scenery—the true character of pastoral—the want of personal observation in Milton's rural poetry—the question as to whether genius is or is not inclined to insanity—these and other interesting matters are brought forward and dismissed with provoking brevity. More space is given to the elucidation of Hartley's remark, that there are not many rural passages in Shakespeare's plays, although they are generally both beautiful and true. But even here the case is not made out. Hartley says he will read to his companions all the passages of this kind to be found in twenty of Shakespeare's dramas, selecting those which "contain far more illustrations of nature and country life than the rest." Any good Shakespearian scholar could furnish several other instances; but, even supposing those here quoted to be the only descriptive passages in our great poet's dramatic works, the wonder to our mind would be that there should be so many, rather than so few, considering that the object of the dramatic poet is the delineation of human action, character, and passion, and not, excepting very incidentally, the depicting of landscape scenery, or the reproduction of the aspects of inanimate and brute nature. Even Hartley admits that "As You Like It" is "a pastoral comedy which might have been composed, and should be read, *sub tegmine fagi*." But from the "Midsummer Night's Dream" he omits some beautiful pastoral passages, more especially the exquisite description of the Cretan hunting scene; and in the "Tempest" he has failed to note those numerous, minute, but most artistic touches by which the physical features of the enchanted island are brought before the reader's eye. Why, also, are we to be confined to twenty of Shakespeare's plays? How about the other fifteen, which, though on sterner and more tragic subjects, are certainly not devoid of rural passages? Hartley fails to establish his case, except to the extent of proving that a dramatic poet does not indulge in long descriptions of woods and plains, mountains and cataracts, landscapes and storms, birds, sheep, and oxen, after the fashion of Thomson, Cowper, Wordsworth, or Bloomfield—an assertion which hardly stood in need of proof. We might fairly ask if any other English dramatist contains so many allusions to external nature,

* *Evenings in Arcadia.* Edited by John Dennis. London: Moxon & Co.

with so reasonable a subjection of them to the primary claims of human life and movement.

We are glad to see the author of this volume doing justice to the melody and fancy to be found in the little-read poems of Robert Herrick. Yet even here the criticism is so incomplete as to present the poet in a light which is not strictly correct. "Poor heathen Herrick," says one of the interlocutors, "was mighty fond of making himself happy in this world, and appears to have had but a faint confused notion of any other;" and allusion is made to the frequent immorality, and at times rampant coarseness, of his verse. There can be no doubt that Herrick, though a clergymen, was, through a large part of his life, an avowed sensualist and a strong sympathizer with the luscious philosophy of Anacreon and Horace. But, unless we are to suppose that he was also one of the most shameless of hypocrites, we have no right to say that he was a "heathen"—at any rate all through his days—or that he had "but a faint, confused notion" of a future existence. His "Noble Numbers" are a collection of devotional poems, full of the deepest religious feeling, and (which is immensely to the credit of his good sense, inherent kindness of nature, and power of self-control, when we consider that they were probably written at a time of reaction from his former profligacy) distinguished by a spirit of wise cheerfulness and thankful enjoyment of life, very favourably contrasting with the gloomy asceticism of other converted rakes—such, for instance, as Donne. It is impossible to read these poems, and doubt that they were the genuine expression of true feelings; and it is scarcely fair to allude to Herrick's indecorums without even mentioning the existence of his graver and purer utterances. On the other hand, too much is said about Herrick's favourite assertion that we ought to make the most of life while we possess it, for that death is an eternal sleep. The thought is a mere commonplace derived from the classical poets, and repeated because it was classical, and gave point and antithesis to the present jollity. There was a certain trick in the time of Herrick of echoing the recognised passwords of poetry; and it no more follows from this particular phrase that the poet of the "Hesperides" seriously reckoned on eternal annihilation than that he believed in Apollo, Aurora, and Cupid, because the old mythology was found to give grace and beauty to his conceptions.

We cannot conclude this notice of Mr. Dennis's book without pointing out the carelessness with which the extracts have been either copied or printed. In the beautiful speech of Julia, in the "Two Gentlemen of Verona," about the current which

"—makes sweet music with the enamell'd stones,
Giving a gentle kiss to every sedge
He overtaketh in his pilgrimage,"

the second of these lines is altogether omitted—evidently by an oversight. The line in the "Midsummer Night's Dream," "I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows," is printed "where the wild thyme blows," to the destruction of the verse; and the next line but one, "Quite over-canopied with lush woodbine," is converted into "Quite over-canopied with *luscious* woodbine," which, though it has the authority of the older editions, has been (we think wisely) abandoned in later times. A passage from William Browne's "Britannia's Pastoral" is here made to contain the nonsensical line, "To gild the muttering *bowers* and pretty rills;" whereas the word in *italics* should be "bournes," i.e., brooks. Inexactness of quotation is always an evil, but it is especially regrettable in a book which seeks to justify critical opinions by special examples. The worst perversion of all, however, is the following:—

"If, like Fletcher's 'Elder Brother,' we could 'walk a turn or two in *Vid Lacteō*,' and have a 'six hours' conference with the stars,' we should scarce consent with him 'to breakfast off Aristotle, dine with Tully, drink tea with the Muses, or sup with Livy.'"

Imagine Fletcher writing about "drinking tea" at a time when no such thing was known in England! The passage really runs as follows:—

"He breaks his fast
With Aristotle, dines with Tully, takes
His watering with the Muses, sups with Livy,
Then walks a turn or two in *Vid Lacteō*,
And, after six hours' conference with the stars,
Sleeps with old *Erra Pater*."

Act I., sc. 2.

If it was intended to adopt the old text to modern usages, at any rate some intimation should have been given of the liberty thus taken.

NEW NOVELS.*

THERE is a great deal that is pleasant in "George Geith, of Fen Court;" and if its story savours somewhat of the improbable, and its hero fails at times to gain the sympathy which his misfortunes are intended to excite, we can well afford to overlook its few defects in consideration of its many merits. It is readable throughout; its dialogue is lively and natural, and its characters are, for the most part, well conceived and well maintained. The weakest

* George Geith, of Fen Court. By F. G. Trafford, Author of "Too Much Alone." London: Tinsley.

Married Beneath Him. By the Author of "Lost Sir Massingberd." London: Macmillan & Co.

Dunmara. By Ruth Murray. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.
Kinkora; an Irish Story. By the Hon. Albert Canning. London: Chapman & Hall.

is that of the hero, who is decidedly wanting in reality; but the heroine's is delightful, and her picture alone would be sufficient to make the book charming. The author appears to have had two objects in view, in addition to desiring to amuse and interest the readers of "George Geith:" the one to prove that commerce has its romantic side, that business is not devoid of sentiment, and that a tradesman may be a most poetic individual; the other, to show that frankness is better than concealment, and that it is particularly dangerous to indulge a taste for secrecy where matrimony is concerned. George Geith is a clergyman, descended from an ancient family, endowed with considerable physical and mental advantages, and blessed with excellent prospects. Unfortunately for his happiness, he is entrapped into a marriage with a woman who soon proves herself as abandoned as designing. He separates from her, gives up his Church preferment, and, casting aside his name and his profession, sets up in London as an accountant, working like a slave, with the intention of making money enough to procure a divorce. In the midst of his toils comes the welcome news that his wife is dead, and, rejoicing in his freedom from the mill-stone which has so long hung about his neck, he resumes his old name, and continues his labours with renewed spirits. Life, which for many a year has been little more than a burden to him, again seems worth having, and before long he falls in love with Beryl, the second daughter of one of his clients, a Mr. Molozane. When he first sees her, she is all gaiety and animation, but before long her father's affairs become irremediably entangled, and, after having to maintain a painful struggle against poverty, she successively undergoes two great sorrows, which quite crush her spirits for the time. First, her younger sister dies, and then her father, and she is left in the world without money and with scarcely a friend. Then George Geith comes forward, having been hitherto kept back by the consciousness of his poverty, and she marries him, and for awhile he and she are perfectly happy. So far the story is excellent, and it is a pity that it does not end at this point: the conclusion would be a tame one, and the moral would be scarcely worth mentioning, but the story would remain tolerably probable, and the reader would be spared a good deal of unnecessary pain. As it is, the wife who was supposed to be dead reappears on the stage. Those who are experienced in the records of novels devoted to bigamy, can easily imagine for themselves the despair, trial, and acquittal of George Geith, and the misery, illness, and death of poor Beryl. On that part of the story we are not disposed to dwell. The tale has been sufficiently often told, and its repetition is wearisome. It is a more agreeable task to call attention to the earlier chapters, which Beryl lights up by her sunny smile. Hers is a very fascinating character, full of lighthearted cheerfulness, but most tender and sympathetic. It is drawn with great skill, and with a neatness and precision which seem to be due to a woman's knowledge of her sex. We have little doubt that the story of George Geith's life is written by a lady, especially when we consider the clergyman's character, and try to realize his life as an accountant. There is a haziness about his commercial pursuits, and an unreality about his virtues, which seem to contradict the idea of the writer being intimately acquainted with men in general, and men of business in particular. His city acquaintances are only shadows, his cousin, Sir Mark Geith, and his brother-in-law, Richard Elsenham, mere silhouettes; whereas almost every woman introduced into the book is cleverly sketched off, some of their pictures (as, for instance, that of Mrs. Elsenham, Beryl's grandmother) being full of truth and animation. But the defects of the gentlemen are much more than counterbalanced by the merits of the ladies, and, if there are a few scenes which had better have been omitted, there are many which we should have been sorry to lose; and therefore, before parting with the book, we can confidently recommend it as one from which its readers will derive no slight enjoyment. It is scarcely possible that they can go through it without adding to their mental gallery many a pleasant picture, and they will dwell with especial gratification on those in which are depicted the quiet old country-house in which Beryl's girlhood was passed, and the city chambers so gloomy till she came there as a bride, so bright and happy when they were lighted up by her presence, while she was still trusting and hopeful, and before sorrow had come upon her unawares.

Very different in almost every respect from "George Geith" is the story of "Married Beneath Him." It is a thoroughly lively and diverting book, and sufficiently interesting to induce the reader who begins it to go right on to the end; but there is not a character in it for which any one can care in the least, and it contains nothing calculated to dwell on the memory, beyond some tolerably humorous scenes and a variety of jokes, good, bad, and indifferent. As for moral, it has none, unless it be that a housemaid may prove a good wife for a literary man; and the author does not appear to have had any particular object in view, beyond that of amusing the readers of *Chambers's Journal*, the periodical in which "Married Beneath Him" first appeared. His present story is decidedly inferior to his former work, "Lost Sir Massingberd." Its plot defies criticism by its absurdity, and most of its characters are carelessly and feebly drawn. But there are a few which appear to have been sketched from life, and their merits make up, to a certain extent, for the defects of their companions. A few lines will suffice to explain the story. Frederick Galton, an impetuous young genius, falls in love with a housemaid, Mary Perling, and privately marries her. His relatives cast him off, and he revenges himself by turning author. An improbable quarrel results in his being tried for murder; but he is acquitted on the ground of insanity, and spends the rest of his life in Switzerland with his wife,

who is such a faultless angel that his friends agree that he certainly has not "married beneath him." As for her husband, he is assuredly not half good enough for her, and must have been a most disagreeable member of society. The best characters in the book are those of Mr. Jonathan Johnson, editor of the *Pater-noster Porcupine*, and his colleague, Mr. Percival Potts, a journalist greatly given to classical quotation. These two literary gentlemen are very amusing companions, and we can conscientiously state that their acquaintance is well worth making. Dr. Hermann also, the principal of Minim Hall, is sketched off with some humour, though we protest against the absurd romance with which he favours Frederick Galton, when that gentleman appears before him as a refractory undergraduate. The subject of it, a Frenchman named De Lernay, is as unnatural a person *in statu pupillari* as can well be imagined, and his daughter is equally stiff and puppet-like. But we do not wish to lay too great a stress on the faults of the book. They are plentiful enough, but there is also a good deal of fun, and capital descriptive touches occur here and there. Some of the university jokes are not very first-rate; but a few of them are excellent, and the scenes in which the literary gentlemen figure contain a fair amount of lively writing, besides giving some insight into the mysteries of an editor's room.

"Dunmara" is just such a story as most young ladies would love to write, or, at least, to read. To them it may confidently be recommended, but we fear it will prove a little insipid to a masculine taste. Yet there is something refreshing in the enthusiasm which gushes over every page, the trembling worship of art and of poetry which every chapter reveals. It is delightful to find that there still are readers left to whom a volume of poems is something to be worshipped rather than to be criticized, who regard a poet less in the light of a fellow-creature than in that of, at least, a semi-divine hero, and who, as they walk along the streets of London, feel their pulses fly faster at the idea that "one might pass right through the shadow of the kings and princes of the aristocracy of genius. Tennyson might make way for you on the footpath. Macrise or Danby might pass you, having just left his work wet upon the easel." Well may those whose early illusions have long ago fled, envy the freshness of feeling and the affluence of admiration which are possessed by the fortunate authoress of "Dunmara." Her heroine, Ellen Wilde, is as intellectual as beautiful, and as graceful as good. Thrown by a shipwreck on the west coast of Ireland, she lives for a time in a weird old house by the sea, surrounded by as strange a family circle as anyone is likely to find outside the walls of a lunatic asylum. Thence she goes to London and becomes a great artist, but eventually returns to her former home beside the Atlantic wave. The plot of the story is thoroughly improbable, its characters are consistently unreal and unnatural, and its incidents are narrated, its conversations are couched, in high-flown and over-coloured language. But in spite of all these defects the book has real merit, and much may be expected of its authoress when her enthusiasm has a little toned down. She is evidently rich in feeling, and has the faculty of remembering and describing sensations which are so evanescent that it is often difficult even to detect their sequence. She is endowed with imagination which may do her good service hereafter, when she has learned to prevent it from running riot; and she has a genuine appreciation of the picturesque, and considerable power of giving articulate expression to her admiration, her book being full of descriptive passages of great beauty. We shall look forward to her next publication with lively interest, hoping to find in it all the good qualities of her present work, and as few as possible of its faults.

The author of "Kinkora" has been actuated by the best motives in publishing that story. Justly indignant at the ferocity displayed by Irish murderers, and the callousness shown by the lookers-on when those "wild peasants right themselves" with a bludgeon or a blunderbuss, he has determined to speak boldly on such atrocities. In this he has succeeded, but not in rendering his tale interesting or amusing. It is written, however, with the best of intentions, its tone is strictly moral, it contains an entire sermon fifteen pages long, and it has the decided merit of being restricted within the limits of two volumes.

PAUPERS AND CRIMINALS.*

If the condition of the poor, the miserable, and the abandoned is but little alleviated in these days, it is certainly not for want of information on the precise features of that condition. It has become almost a fashion within the last ten years to explore the haunts of wretchedness, to photograph the abodes of pauperism and crime, to describe with painful minuteness the sources of fever and of moral degradation, and to reproduce, with all the aids of literary style and pictorial art, the physiognomies, external appearance, and personal manners of the beggar, the outcast, the harlot, and the thief. The remarkable work of Mr. Henry Mayhew, first published in the *Morning Chronicle*, and afterwards issued in a substantive form under the title of "London Labour and the London Poor," has been followed by a host of similar books. Newspapers have sent out commissions again and again to inquire into these national plague-spots; Mr. Dickens and his colleagues of *Household Words* and *All the Year Round* have

contributed largely to the same stock; and Mr. George Godwin, with the specially-qualified eye of an architect and surveyor, has shown us, in more than one volume, the hideous dwellings of our London poor. Mr. Archer is yet another labourer in this wide and mournful field—if one may use so pastoral a metaphor in speaking of so close, fetid, and urban a subject. He says in his preface that "during some years of literary journey-work" he has penetrated "some of those mysteries of London which have very seldom been revealed in print, and certainly have never appeared in penny numbers." We must confess, however, that we do not see much novelty in his book. The phases of London life which he describes have been frequently described before, and, indeed, we doubt very much whether there be such a thing as a "London mystery" remaining. Yet we do not say this in disparagement of Mr. Archer's work. It is unfortunately necessary to be perpetually harping on evils that are perpetually existent. The hunger, the misery, the immorality, and the crime of London seem as yet to have been in no respect diminished by all that has been written about them during the past decade. Bethnal-green still appals us by the spectacle of hopeless penury starving and rotting in underground cellars which seem hardly good enough for the vermin that infest them. The purlieus of Westminster, Southwark, St. Giles's, and many another region of iniquity, still furnish their accustomed quota of thieves and ruffians. The neighbourhood of Ratcliffe Highway, and other eastern parts of riverside London, yet reek as foully as ever with the abominations of the land-sharks (male and female) who prey on home-coming sailors; while of late years the numerous colonies of Lascars and Chinese settled in the same localities have introduced a degree of moral corruption scarcely known before. If it be said that all this shows how ineffective is mere discussion in the eradication of such enormous evils, the fact nevertheless remains that only by resolutely keeping the evils in sight shall we ever have even a chance of removing or mitigating them. We are therefore very well disposed to listen to Mr. Archer, though he simply repeats to us the heavy tale to which our ears are already accustomed. He seems to have personally investigated the facts he describes, and not to have taken anything on trust or at second-hand. He must have devoted some years to so minute an investigation of the dark parts of the metropolis, and occasionally have run no slight risks from infection and from the fierce caprices of ruffianism. Evidently he is equally at home in the poor weavers' garrets and hideous slums and cellars of Spitalfields and Bethnal-green, the flaring and shameless singing and dancing-saloons of the sailors' quarters, the "establishments" of the Jew "fences" about Field-lane and Saffron-hill, the thieves' kitchens in the neighbourhood of Gray's-inn-lane, the common lodging-houses of the poorest and most questionable districts, the murderous dens of old St. Giles's (still sullenly lingering in the immediate vicinity of New Oxford-street), the flash public-houses where detectives go to look for well-known hands, the workhouse, the penitentiary, and the gaol. All these miserable places he describes most excellently, with a picturesque perception of their external features, a sorrowful human eye for their moral significance, and yet with that sense of grotesque humour which often so strangely suggests itself in the midst of poverty, crime, and wretchedness. Mr. Archer's style in dealing with such subjects is very like that of Mr. Dickens, some of whose pet phrases and peculiarities of composition he adopts rather too openly. Like Mr. Dickens, he has a contempt for systems and theories which seem to have broken down in the practise; like him, he makes a passionate demand for a more active Christianity, especially in respect of poor outcast children, whose almost inevitable lapse into crime he is for treating with the utmost tenderness; and, again like him, he combines, with unquestionable truthfulness and accuracy of observation, a certain artist-like eye to the dramatic effect of what he is presenting to the reader. That which we chiefly desire in him is something in the nature of distinct suggestion as to what we are to do with the mass of vice, ignorance, and want. The most we get in this direction is a remark that the rich, and particularly the well-born, should interest themselves more than they now do in the parochial administration of the country.

"I have felt," says Mr. Archer, "a growing conviction that the failure of our institutions for the relief of poverty, and the punishment and eventual reformation of the criminal, may be attributed to the impersonal manner of their application.

"While any attempt to concentrate governmental interference by giving authority to one ruling body, and dividing the cost of the administration equitably over the whole country—as would be the case, for instance, in equalization of the poor-rates—is met with loud cries against centralization as un-English and unconstitutional; the administration of the laws is too often left to incompetent boards and committees, who do centralize their powers in a way almost inconceivably mischievous, and employ utterly unscrupulous agents to carry out their evasions of the laws by which they profess to be bound.

"This goes on, and the gentlemen of England who have shouted so bravely for our institutions continue to sit at home perfectly at ease, with the satisfactory reflection that they are not called upon to take part in that local government which, if it were conducted by the class who are best fitted by education and position to assert its claims, would have power to avert any danger which could arise from the centralization so much dreaded."

Without denying that some good might be done in this way, we fear the evil lies deeper than such a suggestion would seem to imply. Mr. Archer, however, may take credit to himself for helping towards the removal of our social blots by presenting them clearly to the general view.

* The Pauper, the Thief, and the Convict: Sketches of Some of their Homes, Haunts, and Habits. By Thomas Archer. London: Groombridge & Sons.

THE SCIENTIFIC PERIODICALS.

In the *Geological Magazine*, Mr. Ruskin, in his new character of Natural Philosopher, gives the opening article upon the subject of the Structure of the Alps. Of late a somewhat exciting controversy has occurred between a large section of the modern school of geologists and Mr. Ruskin. The former contends that the peculiar external features of the Alps are due to the eroding action of huge seas of ice which formerly existed; and the latter, who has certainly given some attention to the matter, denies the accuracy of this view. In the present paper, the writer does not express his ideas as clearly as he has done elsewhere, but devotes at least half of his contribution to an attempt to throw ridicule upon the theories of his opponents. This is much to be regretted, the more so as Mr. Ruskin approaches the subject at first in a calm and dispassionate manner, which leads one to believe that he is really a searcher after truth. Satire is not argument, and we think the following quotation is out of keeping with the dignity of science:—"There were, we will suppose, rotatory glaciers, whirlpools of ecstatic icelike whirling dervishes, which excavated hollows in the Alps, as at the baths of Leuk, or the plain of Sallenche, and passed afterwards out—queue à queue—through such narrow gates and ravines as those of Cluse. Gigantic glaciers in oscillation, like handsaws, severed the main ridge of the Alps, and hacked it away for the most part, leaving only such heaps of sawdust as the chain of the Turin Superga, and here and there a fragment like the Viso and Cervin, to testify to the ancient height of the serrated ridge. Two vast longitudinal glaciers also split the spine of the Alps, east and west, like butchers' cleavers, each for sixty miles; then turned in accordance to the north, cut down through the lateral limestones, and plunged, with the whole weight of their precipitate ice, into what are now the pools of Geneva and Constance." There is much more of this species of philosophizing in Mr. Ruskin's paper, which we will spare our readers. If the facts involved in the above passage were, even distantly, those which the Erosion theorists maintain, we should not blame the writer for indicating them; but really the account given is but a travestied description of phenomena which *savans* of infinitely greater experience and powers of observation than Mr. Ruskin have seen in other portions of the globe than those attractive to the mere artist. Forbes has very clearly demonstrated that the action of glaciers, so far from being of that ecstatic and spasmodic character depicted by Mr. Ruskin, is one which takes place so slowly as to require careful observation to detect it in course of progress, though by its effects its magnitude is easily seen. We would commend Forbes's treatise to Mr. Ruskin's consideration, and trust that for the future our author will more fully perceive the truth of his maxim that controversies retard the progress of science. Mr. Harry Seeley presents us with a short paper on the Cervical Vertebrae of a Fossil Whale. In this, he shows that the specimens under notice, though described by Professor Owen as belonging to a species of dolphin, are really the bones of a true whale. In the plate accompanying the article, a good delineation of the fossils is given, and the anatomist can observe, by the peculiar apertures for the vertebral arteries and the absence of what is termed a "neural spine," that the vertebrae are not those of *delphinus*. The abstracts and reports are of the usual interesting character; and among the reviews we observe a very favourable notice of Mr. Whitaker's "Geology of London," a work which is published by order of the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury, and which all metropolitan geologists, amateur and professional, will do well to study.

The contents of the present number of the *Journal of Botany* are not so interesting as those of last month's issue; still, they are instructive, and, in regard to one article, a little sensational. Of the opening paper we can only say that it refers to several new species of the ivy order which have been discovered by Dr. Welwitsch, the celebrated explorer of African botany. The descriptions of the plants are given in Latin, and, doubtless, will prove as instructive to the lover of classics as to the plant-hunter! For ourselves, we think the English language sufficiently fertile to supply words explanatory of the various minute organs of flowers, and that, however gracefully Cicero may have described the anatomy of an orchid, to mere English naturalists the mother-tongue is more acceptable. Indeed, could we put any faith in spiritualism, we should like to know what Horace would think of the following passage:—"Calyx tubo ovato, limbo minute 5-dentato. Petala 5 ovato-triangularia, 1-nervia, apice incurvula, libera aestivali valvata." Mr. Clarke's paper on Callitricha proves that the writer is a clear-sighted botanist, and leads us to hope that, if that gentleman extends his observations to the anatomy of other and commoner plants, something may be done to remodel our present imperfect classifications. The translation of Dr. Unger's lecture occupies the remainder of the number, and is decidedly the most attractive of the communications. This well-known philosopher conceives that New Holland and Europe originally formed one great continent. The idea is at first a little startling; but, when we know that it is probable that the desert of Sahara was formerly an enormous sea, and that Western Europe and North-western Africa were originally connected by land, Dr. Unger's hypothesis appears worthy of consideration. The theory is not based upon geological evidence, but upon palaeontological; that is to say, it is founded rather upon an examination of the recent and extinct organisms of the two continents than upon a study of their mineral relations. The writer gives a series of illustrations, in which he shows that several of our less ancient fossil plants have their only existing congeners in Australia. The Eocene geological formation of Europe exhibits many traces of plants which may be said to be extinct in all portions of the world save Australia. Not only do we meet with several fragments of the polymorphous order, *Myrtaceae*, but it is plain that the genus *Eucalyptus*, so characteristic of the New Holland flora, is represented among the Eocene fossils. Of several species, the peculiar leaves as well as the fruit have been found. The same is the case with the *Epacrids*, although as yet a single leaf furnishes evidence of the European existence of this widely diffused Australian order. More stress even is laid on the *Proteaceae* as a characteristic order of the Eocene period; indeed, very

many genera of this group lived in Europe in pre-historic times, and these plants are well known to constitute the major part of the scrub vegetation of Australia. Many other examples could be cited, but enough has been given to show the force of this curious theory. Dr. Unger's conclusions regarding the probable fate of the Australian continent are not cheering. "New Holland," says he, "may be likened to an old man rather than to a child; it does not begin to breathe and to live; on the contrary, it has lived and toiled, and is tottering toward its grave. . . . The whole of the country is surrounded by coral reefs, those buildings of sinister Naiads, which slowly but surely drag their victims to their watery habitation. It is known that these reef-building corals grow in considerable masses only when the ground is gradually sinking. . . . The entire condition of the country, the desert-like character of the interior, the great number of salt-lakes, the rivers terminating in swamps, &c., all indicate an approaching geological change, which, however—let the settlers take comfort—may not take place for some thousands of years. However, this much is certain—New Holland has played out its part in the physical history of the world."

Some time ago, a well-known scientific society—the Ethnological—underwent a process of "multiplication by fission," as naturalists say, and the result of this was the establishment of a new association—the Anthropological—whose journal is termed the *Anthropological Review*. This periodical is published quarterly, and the number for February, which is the eighth of the series, is full of instructive matter. The first twenty pages are devoted to an abstract of the proceedings of the sister society in Paris, and after these follow reviews of books, and papers which have been read at the meetings. On a late occasion, we attributed the translation of a work on Atheism to the influence of the Anthropological Society, having judged in some measure from the circumstance that the treatise was produced in its English version by one of the vice-presidents of that body. It appears our surmise was incorrect, and we are glad to be able to say so. There is a gradually developing idea afloat that the Anthropological Society does not especially encourage a belief in revealed religion, and we are happy to find, therefore, that it passes (through its journal) a very severe censure upon Dr. Büchner's work on "Force and Matter." The reviewer, having taken the author to task for the gross materialism which is so marked a character of his writings, observes:—"We shall not discover God by induction, nor demonstrate the immortality of the soul by an experiment. These sublime truths are attained by another path; are mastered by a grander process; and, like the stainless stars that look grandly down upon every storm, serenely bright beyond the cloud, supremely still despite the tempest, will infallibly survive the discoveries of science and the revolutions of opinion, however potent the attacks of philosophers—and, we may add, however weak and injudicious the defence of theologians." The reviews of the "Science of History" and "The Races of the Old World" are equally good. Of the original articles—the Transactions included—there is little to be said. Dr. Wilson's paper on the "Physical Characteristics of the Ancient and Modern Celt of Gaul and Britain" is a valuable contribution to our knowledge upon the subject; but it is a reprint from the *Canadian Journal*, and can therefore hardly be said to come from Anthropological sources. The other matter ("Proceedings," &c.) is rather weak, and, though occupying eighty pages, might with advantage be compressed into three or four. Altogether, the labours of the Society do not impress us as being worthy of a very high position.

If a proof was required of the disinterested devotion to science which is so frequently observed in this country, the publication of such a journal as the *Numismatic Chronicle* would be adequate testimony. The number of this periodical just issued is of a lighter character than usual, the papers being less technical and more readable than are generally presented. Mr. R. S. Poole continues his history of the Coins of the Ptolemies, and this contribution is succeeded by a report of Mr. Poole's lecture on "Greek Coins as Illustrating Greek Art," which was delivered in the Royal Institution. The reporter gives a series of well-executed engravings illustrative of the species of money to which the lecturer specially alluded; and, of these, some, representing Proserpine as she existed in the conception of various peoples, are very interesting. "The Proserpine of Messene is ideal—a goddess superior to human feeling. The Proserpine of Cyzicus, instead of showing character, shows an intensity of expression. She is the maiden struck by a sudden foreboding of her fate. . . . Thus, though ideal, this head is scarcely that of a goddess; it is partly, but not wholly, that of a woman. The Proserpine of Syracuse is neither goddess nor maiden—merely the most beautiful young lady of Syracuse, with her hair very elaborately dressed by the best Syracusan hairdresser." In Mr. J. Evans's article on "A Counterfeit Groat of Henry VIII," we find it shown that the practice of counterfeiting English coin was much resorted to in France at an early period. "A discovery made in the Seine, at Paris, some few years ago, of a pair of dies for striking groats of Henry VIII., proves that Paris was, at all events, one of the places where the counterfeiting of the coins of this country, so much complained of in the proclamations, was carried on." Those whose curiosity tends in the direction of paper money will be much pleased with a contribution by Mr. J. Williams, upon "An Example of Chinese Paper Currency of the Ming Dynasty." Certes, our Chinese fellow-beings appear to have been before us in more things than the mariner's compass. Here we have described a sort of Government bank note, of a period corresponding to our fourteenth century. "It is on exceedingly coarse paper; so much so, that it is exceedingly difficult to make out the exact composition of many of the characters inscribed upon it. It is 13 inches long by 8½ inches wide, and is of a bluish or slate colour. The inscription is evidently printed from a wooden block, with blank spaces left for the exact date, which, however, does not appear." Many other details concerning this curious specimen are given in Mr. Williams's paper, to which we must refer such of our readers as desire to know more. The remaining contents are—a long communication on "The Earliest Indian Coinage," by Mr. E. Thomas; a notice of recent

Numismatic publications; and the Proceedings of the "Society" for the session 1863-4.

By far the pleasantest paper in this month's *Fisherman's Magazine* is that by "Red Gill," upon "Curiosities of Angling Literature," in which we are treated to an account of the strange notions prevalent in earlier epochs concerning the efficacy of odorous baits, &c. Mr. Cholmondeley Pennel continues his useful, because practical, descriptions of the various kinds of tackle employed in catching pike. The beautiful silvered lithograph of the dace, together with the adjoining descriptive letterpress, must prove very attractive to the true angler; and the other articles, on "Angling in Ireland Fifty Years Ago," "Lord R. Montagu's Bill on Pollutions," and "The Wye, its Tributaries and Fish," deserve perusal.

Among other instructive essays which are contained in the *Artisan*, is one on "Ships and Guns," in which the author argues with much force against the custom of plating ships with heavy armour. Since it now appears certain that guns with steel shot can be made and worked on board ship to penetrate any iron armour side that any sea-going ship can safely carry, it appears to be idle to encumber our vessels of war with an enormous load, which impedes their speed, necessitates the increase of steam-power, and hence an increase of size (in order to carry fuel), and renders them in many cases unseaworthy.

Newton's London Journal of Arts and Sciences is full of interesting information relating to recent patents. Of the notices especially worthy of perusal, we may mention those of Mr. Harrison's patent for an atmospheric loom, M. Canviul's device for an alarm and signaling apparatus, and Mr. Davies's ingenious apparatus for the inhalation of liquids. The last particularly merits attention. Hitherto, apparatus for the purposes of inhalation have been made to act by means of compressed air or liquid, and a pair of bellows or a force-pump was necessary to compress the same before the machine would work. By Mr. Davies's invention these difficulties are obviated by the employment of heated vapours instead of compressed air, and by these means also the apparatus is rendered to some extent automatic. This periodical addresses itself to all who desire to observe the progress of mechanical invention.

SHORT NOTICES.

Mr. Jay's Second Letter on Dawson's Introduction to the Federalist. (New York: American News Company. London: Trübner & Co.)—This is a violent political pamphlet, written with a view to combating the Democratic doctrine of State sovereignty, asserting the contrary theory of the supremacy of the Federal Government, and vindicating such of the early framers of the Constitution as favoured the concentration of political power at Washington from the attacks of Southern sympathisers. It will be recollect that, shortly after the breaking out of the civil war, Mr. Motley, the American historian of the Dutch Republic, addressed a letter to the *Times*, contending that the first constitution of the United States, which was avowedly based on the principle of State rights, and in which the Federal bond was of the feeblest kind, led to a condition of anarchy so flagrant and so fraught with danger that an amended constitution was passed a few years later, in which the power of the Federal Government was greatly increased, and the rights of the people of the United States were placed above those of the States themselves. This is the argument advanced by Mr. Jay. At the time of Washington, the statesmen of America were divided on the vexed question of Federal sovereignty and States' rights; and the quarrel, which has been going on ever since, is at the bottom of the present war. Englishmen are for the most part very ignorant of the merits of this vexed question, and a work really informing them, calmly and impartially, of the facts would be extremely desirable. We cannot say that Mr. Jay's is such a work. It is addressed to the American public, and therefore presupposes a certain knowledge of the facts; it is written in a strain of great personality; and it is very bitter against England. There are probably few Englishmen who would have the patience to read it through.

Guide to Every-day Knowledge. By the Rev. Dr. Brewer, Trinity Hall, Cambridge. (Cassell, Petter, & Galpin.)—Dr. Brewer says that his "Guide" was suggested by Mr. Burdett Coutts' "Prizes for Common Things." It is designed for families and schools, and treats of common things in a plain, succinct, and intelligible manner. The general subjects treated of are wool, cotton, silk, leather, bones, soap and candles, coal, the best means of acting in case of fire, gems and jewels, metals, foods and drinks, cooking, refuse, waste, and things despised, accidents, maladies, poisoning, disinfectants, personal cleanliness, &c. The information is conveyed in the form of question and answer; and it is astonishing what an amount of knowledge is concentrated within the covers of this little volume. Dr. Brewer has compiled an admirable book. It is more interesting than most stories, and contains the very essence of a hundred works.

Odds and Ends. No. I. Sketches of Highland Character. Sheep Farmers and Drovers. (Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas.)—The writer of these "Sketches of Highland Character" prefaces his reminiscences by observing that a great change has recently come over the mountainous parts of Scotland and the Celtic race inhabiting them; that the population is becoming thinner, while the old proprietors are giving place to new ones; that the bogs are being drained, and the heather supplanted by crops of corn. Still, he adds, much remains to be learnt of the manners, characters, and modes of speech of the people; and he therefore proposes to exhibit those peculiarities in a series of pen-and-ink sketches, commencing with "A Night with Drovers and Sheep Farmers on the Mull of Cartyre." The author's style is lively and dramatic, and his picture has every appearance of exactness; but we cannot say that it conveys at all a pleasant impression of the persons described, who seem to be a set of as dull, coarse-living, and disagreeable fellows as one would care to meet.

Edwy and Elgiva. A Tragedy. By Thomas Tilston, B.A., Trinity Hall, Cambridge. (Moxon & Co.)—At the back of the title-page of this tragedy, we are informed that the cover is from a design by Mr. W. Harry Rogers, and that the book is "produced under the superintendence of —" a gentleman who prefers to give his initials in a form that may be very artistic, but which we confess our inability to read. The cover, however, is really most elegant—soberly splendid in green and gold, and almost as solid as the binding of an old Missal. We are sorry to add that the cover is the best part of the book. Mr. Tilston is a young man, and he says he has adopted the drama for his first attempt, because the necessity of making human beings talk somewhat as they really would is useful in restraining a beginner from "the falsely brilliant manner in which he might be inclined to compose." In the fervour of his endeavours to avoid brilliance, our author has run into the opposite extreme of colloquialism. As thus, where Dunstan is addressing an attendant monk:—

"There, you may go. In future send
Some other monk, who may with safety watch
This pair; you seem in love yourself. [Stamping impatiently.] Be off!"

Shortly afterwards, as Dunstan is flogging himself, another monk enters, and begs him to spare his person, to which the abbot responds—

"Fool, come here;
You shall be served the same."

Edwy at one part makes an attempt to give something like a poetical account of his sweetheart, and suddenly breaks off with—

"I really can't describe her: you shall see."

There is certainly no false brilliance here; but then it may be doubted whether there is any true poetry. Mr. Tilston, we fear, has made a false start. He must try again.

Stone Talk; being Some of the Marvellous Sayings of a Petral Portion of Fleet-street, London, to One Dr. Polyglott, Ph. D. By Frank Baker, D.O.N. (Hardwicke.)—We do not pretend to say that we have read the 3,675 lines of which this satirical poem is composed. Having, long before we arrived at that number, found ourselves hopelessly involved in a thick fog of obscurity, immodest allusion, and general repulsiveness, we abstained from prosecuting further inquiries. If any of our readers would like to try their fortune in the same investigation, we wish them joy, and as much success as they can obtain.

Practical Hints for Investing Money: with an Explanation of the Mode of Transacting Business on the Stock Exchange. By Francis Playford, Sworn Broker. (Virtue Brothers & Co.)—Mr. Playford's work here reaches its third edition—a better testimony to its usefulness than any we could give. To most persons beyond the charmed circles of the City, Stock Exchange speculations are mysteries, filling the mind with vague conceptions of power and riches, sometimes oppressing it with a sense of secret villainy, and but seldom yielding positive ideas for the good either of the individual or of the State. Yet there is no doubt, as Mr. Playford remarks, that "the Funds afford the safest possible investment for surplus capital, whether permanently or for limited periods." It is therefore very desirable that a knowledge of the conditions affecting this method of investment should be more generally diffused than it is at present. On such a subject Mr. Playford speaks with the authority of personal experience, and his book, being succinct and condensed, may be read throughout with interest and profit. Though himself a "sworn broker," our author stands very manfully by the rights of those bold spirits who have in this way set up in business in the City without being sworn, without making themselves citizens, and without incurring those heavy charges which are attendant on the more strictly legal position. The old-fashioned abuses of the City are numerous; and the despotic demands made on brokers are apparently among them.

Observations in Reference to Duration of Life amongst the Clergy of England and Wales. By the Rev. John Hodgson, M.A., of Trinity College, Cambridge, &c. (C. & E. Layton.)—On the establishment, in the year 1829, of the Clergy Mutual Assurance Society, it occurred to Mr. Hodgson, himself a clergyman, that it would be important to ascertain, by means of unimpeachable data, the duration of life amongst the clergy during a long series of years, with a view to basing on the information thus collected certain general principles such as might prove useful to the society in which he was more especially interested. His task spread over five-and-thirty years, and was only brought to a close towards the latter end of 1864. The results are given to the world in this pamphlet; to which are added an Appendix showing the rate of mortality amongst the children of clergymen, and also amongst children and married persons of the labouring classes of the parish of St. Peter, Isle of Thanet,—and a Supplement containing tables referring to questions connected with Life Assurance, and to the valuations of next presentations and advowsons, drawn up by Mr. Samuel Brown, actuary to the Guardian Fire and Life Assurance Society. The publication is one of great value and interest to clergymen.

Functional Diseases of the Stomach. Part I. Sea Sickness: its Nature and Treatment. By John Chapman, M.D., M.R.C.P., M.R.C.S. (Trübner & Co.)—Dr. Chapman asserts that he has discovered a means of curing sea-sickness by the application of ice along the back; and he here gives details of the method and of its effects. If he has really succeeded in mastering one of the most painful of human maladies, he will deserve to be ranked among the benefactors of mankind. But, as the present is only an instalment of a book on the "Functional Diseases of the Stomach" which he promises, we will defer any consideration of his theories until the complete work is before us.

We have also received *The Stepping Stone to Arithmetic*, and the *Key to the same*, by Alexander Arman (Virtue Brothers & Co.);—*A Sketch of the Lives of the Davenport Brothers, with an Account of their Manifestations in America and England*, by J. H. Powell (Caudwell);

—An Earnest Address to a Young Communicant, by a Lady (Rivingtons);—The First False Step (Elliot Stock);—Anent the American War (Ridgway);—Skeleton Ideas on Various Subjects, by V. W. (Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.);—The Invasion of Britain by Julius Cæsar: a Memoir read at the Annual Meeting of the Archaeological Institute, held at Rochester in July, 1863, by Edwin Guest, LL.D., F.R.S., &c. (Office of the Institute);—Part I. of Life: its Nature, Varieties, and Phenomena, by Leo H. Grindon (F. Pitman);—No. XXV. of Le Bibliophile (Jeffs);—and the February Nos. of the Art Student, the Social Science Review, the Month, Young England, the Baptist Magazine, and Merry and Wise.

SHAKESPEARE IN GERMANY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "LONDON REVIEW."

SIR,—I wish to say a few words in answer to Dr. Bell's letter on "Shakespeare in Germany," which appeared in the LONDON REVIEW of January 28.

Dr. Bell has assigned the plots of "King Lear," the "Taming of the Shrew," the "Merchant of Venice," and "Hamlet," to a German origin. Now I think I can, with tolerable certainty, prove, on the evidence adduced in the writings of various Shakesperian commentators, and elsewhere, that the plots of all these plays—those of the three first-mentioned especially—were drawn from different sources to those suggested by Dr. Bell. The story of "King Lear," or Leir, which, as dramatised by Shakespeare, Dr. Bell says is "a refined plot on Hans Sach's 'Nürnberg Meister Sängers Der Kolbim Kusten,'" was related as an ancient English or British historical legend, or perhaps a fact, by the old English chronicler, Geoffrey of Monmouth, in his "British History." It is again told by Holinshed in his "Chronicle," and by Spenser in his "Faery Queene," Book II. Canto X. Camden, the antiquary, has, in his "Remains," a very similar story of one Ina, King of the West Saxons, which, if true, Bishop Percy plausibly conjectures to have been the real origin of the fable of "Lear," and from which Shakespeare seems to have derived a few slight hints. There is also another play besides Shakespeare's on the subject of King Lear, which is evidently older than the work of our great poet. It is an anonymous and poor production, in which the incidents of King Lear's history are for the most part treated in a manner very different from that of Shakespeare, who, therefore, does not appear to have been much indebted to the older drama, beyond borrowing from it here and there some two or three comparatively trifling circumstances. The story or legend had likewise, previous to Shakespeare, been related in various forms, both prose and metrical, all of which our poet had probably seen or read, as he has evidently availed himself of them, more or less, in his play. But the most likely, and perhaps more immediate source from which Shakespeare took the materials for the main plot of his drama of "King Lear," was an old English historical ballad upon the subject. This ballad, which is printed by Percy in his "Reliques," more closely approximates, in most of its details, to Shakespeare's play than any of the other versions of the story which I have mentioned. In it may be seen in miniature all the chief events, including the madness of Lear, which constitute the plot of Shakespeare's drama, with the sole exception of the nocturnal storm in the third Act, which was probably added by Shakespeare.

So much for "King Lear." Now with regard to the "Taming of the Shrew," which Dr. Bell says is borrowed "from a very old German legend of the thirteenth century, called the 'Zornbraten,' in Freiherr von Lasberg's 'Alteutscher Lieder-Saal,'" and which, by the way, several of his commentators have placed among the apocryphal plays of Shakespeare, a few of the incidents and expressions, as well as the name of Petruchio, are copied, according to Dr. Farmer in his "Essay on the Learning of Shakespeare," from an old comedy of Ariosto, called "Supposes," which had been translated into English about the middle of the sixteenth century by George Gascoigne. But there is extant an older comedy than the one usually attributed to Shakespeare, upon the same subject as the "Taming of the Shrew," and with the very self-same title. This old comedy, which has been ascribed to Robert Greene, a somewhat earlier dramatist than Shakespeare, contains all the most prominent events and characters, even including the Induction with the lord and the drunken tinker, Christopher Sly, to be found in Shakespeare's "Taming of the Shrew," and our great poet has, in his treatment of the story, very closely followed the older play in all its most important incidents (and a few of the minor ones too), in the scenes, names of the characters, and even many of the speeches, some of which he has but slightly altered from Greene's comedy.

As for the "Merchant of Venice," the origin of which Dr. Bell ascribes to "three old German black-letter ballads, 1494–1498," there is an old English ballad upon the same subject, which, as well as the old ballad of Lear, is likewise to be found in Percy's "Reliques," under the title of "Gernutus, the Jew of Venice." The story of the Jew, the merchant, and the bond, may also be found in the old English "Gesta Romanorum," a manuscript collection of tales, sketches, &c., written in the reign of Henry VI., and in Gower's "Confessio Amantis." But, though Shakespeare probably made use of all these, the main source from which he derived the plot of his "Merchant of Venice," at least that part relating to Shylock and his bond, appears to have been an old Italian novel in the "Pecorone," a series of stories written in the fourteenth century, by Ser Giovanni Fiorentino, an English translation of which had doubtless been published in or before Shakespeare's time, but which has probably since perished. An outline of this story is given by Dr. Johnson in his "Commentary on Shakespeare," abridged from a more modern translation.

I have thus, I think, pretty clearly shown that Shakespeare may have readily obtained the materials for his plays of "Lear," the "Taming of the Shrew," and the "Merchant of Venice," without having seen, or perhaps even known of the existence of, those German works mentioned by Dr. Bell; and it now only remains for me to say something respecting the Athenian clowns in "Midsummer Night's

Dream," and "Hamlet." As regards the former, the character of Peter Quenz, in the old German farce, from which Shakespeare would seem to have orally translated the name of his Peter Quince, the carpenter, was, on Dr. Bell's own showing, a real person, for he describes him as "a high dignitary and remarkable political character of the North in the thirteenth century." May not Shakespeare, then, have taken the name of his buffoon from that of the true character as well as the German author? As you were prevented, from want of space, from publishing the enclosures in Dr. Bell's recent letter, I cannot of course venture an opinion as to how near Sach's "Prince of Jutland" approaches in point of construction to Shakespeare's "Hamlet." But I do not know whether Dr. Bell has seen an old quarto volume, published in the sixteenth century in black letter, entitled the "Hystorie of Hamblett." I have not, indeed, seen the book itself, but I have read an abstract of the whole history in the essays of different commentators, together with several quotations from it. Although Shakespeare has altered and amplified the original story a good deal, yet all the chief and most conspicuous incidents of the old romance are embodied in his play, including Hamlet's feigned madness, and the closet scene between Hamlet and his mother, in which latter Shakespeare has even quoted the very expression or exclamation uttered by Hamlet on discovering Polonius secreted behind the arras—"A rat! a rat!"—from the novel. I cannot, therefore, suppose that a knowledge of German literature was essential to the writing of "Hamlet." I am, yours, &c., M. R.

LITERARY GOSSIP.

THE literary event of the week has been the "trade" publication of the French Emperor's "History of Caesar." As there have been so many rumours about this work, and as so much interest exists in certain quarters concerning it, some particulars of Vol. I. of the English edition may not be uninteresting. In appearance, each volume will resemble the large edition of Macaulay, the pages of letterpress being a trifle smaller. The title of the English edition will be—"JULIUS CÆSAR. (Here follows a woodcut of the Imperial Eagle.) By Special Authority. London: Cassell, Petter, & Galpin. 1865." A large part of each page is occupied by reference notes, and such authors as Livy, Diodorus Halicarnassus, Strabo, with a host of German and other commentators, are continually appealed to. The first volume will be exclusively devoted to the history of the Constitution of Rome, from the foundation of the city to the accession of Julius Cæsar. Napoleon, Charlemagne, and Julius Cæsar, are mentioned in the work as being the most extraordinary men in history. The author explains the rapidity with which the Romans conquered Italy, at the same time showing that they established there a state of things preferable to what had previously existed; and he terminates his observations with this axiom:—"Only those things are irrevocably destroyed which can be replaced with advantage." The excitement in Paternoster-row is scarcely so great as we should have expected with such a book; certainly nothing to be compared with the hurry of the booksellers when the early volumes of Macaulay's "History of England" first appeared. Amongst the retail dealers the excitement is far greater, many of them ornamenting their shop-fronts with posters, or advertising in the public prints to supply the work at the lowest possible profit. In Paris, it appears, the usual trade allowance will not be made by M. Plon. Of the English edition, Messrs. Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. will take 750 copies; Hamilton, 500; Kent, 100; Low & Co., 100; Mudie's Library, 500; Smith & Son, 500; Robertson (for Melbourne), 150; Booth's Library, 50; Lockwood, 100; and all the principal retail shops from 50 to 50 copies each. Messrs. Longman & Co. take none as yet. The book will be published here at 12s. per volume; with an atlas of maps, explaining Cæsar's travels, price 5s.

In the Pountalès Gallery, now attracting so much attention in Paris, previous to its disposal under the hammer, it is said that the historian of Cæsar has especially remarked, and evidently wishes to become the possessor of, a suit of armour which belonged to a gladiator, almost complete, and stated to be the only suit of the kind extant in equal preservation.

A correspondent sends a singular paragraph:—"One of the most distinguished professors of philology at Berlin has been attacked by lunacy, which has taken a peculiar turn. The professor fancies that he has spent the last year of his life collecting notes on the life of Julius Cæsar, and that these notes have been stolen from him, and sent to the Emperor. He is watching the publication of the 'Histoire de César' with the utmost impatience, in order to vindicate his moral property, as he calls it. He maintains that a French hat-maker with whom he lodged stole his manuscripts. That the poor gentleman himself has become mad as a hatter is clear; but the distress of his scientific friends is great, and their efforts are ceaseless to convince him of his mania. Meanwhile, his course of lectures is stopped."

From the Italian journals we learn of the decease of the poet Felice Romani, author of the libretti of "Norma" and of "La Sonnambula."

The Telegraphic News Association, in consequence of the support which it has received from the press and the public, has determined to increase its capital and enlarge the circle of its operations. The company would direct attention to the American telegrams of the Association "which have appeared during the last three months, as evidence of the accuracy, impartiality, and fullness of the intelligence which they are in a position to furnish."

We unintentionally omitted last week to notice the decease of the Princess "Caraboo," at Bristol, recently. Those of our readers interested in the history of impostors may remember that many years since a person who styled herself the "Princess Caraboo" created a sensation in the literary and fashionable circles of Bath and other places, which lasted till it was discovered that the whole affair was a

romance, cleverly sustained and acted out by a young and prepossessing girl. In 1817, John Mathew Gutch, the author and book-collector of Bristol, printed a history of Caraboo, giving specimens of her strange language, the prayers of the Javasu country, her tastes in the matters of food, dress, &c. The book had two fine portraits on steel, from paintings by a member of the Royal Academy, and ended by a supplement of sonnets and verses from the pens of most of the western poets. The girl's name was Mary Willcocks, alias Baker, and she appears to have come of poor parents from Wetheridge, near Crediton. She could not write ten words in her own tongue correctly, but yet she managed to form a new series of characters, which she passed off as the method of writing used in Javasu. These letters, or characters, looked strangely like those in use in the different countries of India; and it was conjectured, after the imposture was discovered, that she must have copied them from the writings of some Oriental scholar. On being deposed from the honours which had been accorded to her, the "Princess" retired into comparatively humble life, and married. There was a kind of grim humour in the occupation which she subsequently followed—that of an importer of leeches; but she carried on her trade with credit to herself and satisfaction to her customers.

We have more than once in these columns alluded to the false taste which at present induces many publishers to print books and journals, not in any way connected with antiquarian matters, in antique type. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, the new evening paper, we are sorry to see coming forth in these ancient and unsightly characters. At present, it looks very like the *Realm*, which, owing to its old-fashioned type, and other drawbacks against a healthy existence, may almost be said to have been still-born. It is, of course, no business of ours in what type a contemporary chooses to appear; but to our mind a witticism loses much of its point, and satire much of its sting, when given to the world in Baskerville's antique letters, or Caslon's one hundred year old type. It may not be generally known that in Paternoster-row a suspicion is always excited when a new book on a very modern subject appears on tinted paper and in type of an ancient character. As will be noted, the advertisements at the back of the *Pall Mall Gazette* almost lose the object of their insertion by reason of the peculiar typography in which they appear.

Collectors of choice books will be glad to hear that M. Ambroise Firmin Didot has followed up his exquisite little editions of Horace and Virgil by an edition of *Anacreon*, which for beauty of typography and fitness of illustration leaves nothing to be desired. Fifty-four charming little photographs, amazingly clear and distinct, illustrate the odes, which are prefaced by a luminous introduction from the pen of the accomplished editor.

The very defective system of pawnbroking, as carried out in this country, and sanctioned, if not encouraged, by legislative enactments, will shortly be made the subject of full inquiry in a work which is now in preparation by a gentleman who has devoted much time and attention to the disgraceful English system. The practice of obtaining small loans on goods left as security may be met with in Paris as well as London; but the system there is guarded by so many barriers to a fraudulent disposal, and by so many checks against rapacity on the part of the broker, that it may almost be pronounced perfect as compared with our encouragement to crime and drunkenness. The subject of the French and Continental pawnbroking system was adverted to in "Cosmopolite's" able letter to the *Times* on Thursday, and we doubt not the press generally will devote their columns to a very general discussion of the whole subject when the work alluded to appears. As our readers will have observed, the daily papers of the past week have nearly all given leaders on the inducements offered to burglars and others by the English pawnbroking system, in connection with the recent jewellery robberies here, in Manchester, and elsewhere.

Mr. Browning has determined to make a selection from his works for one of the volumes of the "Minature Series" now in course of publication by Messrs. EDWARD MOXON & Co. It is also understood that Mr. Browning will make the selection from Shelley's works, to appear in the same series.

During the week, the very curious collection of books, manuscripts, autograph letters, and trinkets formed, by John Sainsbury, Esq., has been dispersed by the hammer of Sotheby, Wilkinson, and Hodge, of Wellington-street, Strand. This collection has long been famous for Napoleon curiosities—letters of the Emperor to his brother Joseph, King of Spain; letters from the mother, and almost all the members of the Bonaparte family. In the last day's sale two Shakespeare deeds occurred. One of these is an "Indenture of Bargain and Sale between Henry Walker, Citizen and Minstrel of London, and William Shakespeare, of Stratford-upon-Avon, in the county of Warwick, gentleman; William Johnson, Citizen and Vintner of London; John Jackson and John Heming, of London, gentlemen, for £140, of a house or tenement with the appurtenances, situate and being within the precinct, circuit, and compass of the late Black Fryers, London, 10 March, 1612." The note of Mr. Sainsbury, attached to this original document, says:—"When it is considered that Shakespeare had this identical deed in his own possession for more than four years; that he left it, and the property to which it relates, to his favourite daughter, Susanna; and that to its counterpart (now in the library of the Corporation of the City of London) he merely affixed his signature on the small slip of parchment that holds the seal, it may be fairly asked which of the two documents possesses the greater interest, both being confessedly of much value and literary importance." The second deed relates to the same property, and is of special interest as throwing light upon the marriage of Shakespeare's daughter Judith, to Thomas Quiney, of Stratford, vintner. Mention is also made in it of Susannah Hall, daughter of Shakespeare, and wife of John Hall, of Stratford, sen.

Serials for Sabbath reading are now so much the order of the day, and appear to be so much more profitable to publishers than weekday Magazines, that another competitor with *Good Words*, Dr. Guthrie's *Sunday Magazine*, the *Lamp*, the *Quiver*, and the half-score sheets of extracts with pictures of good boys and girls, issued by the numerous

book and tract societies, is announced to appear. It will be called the *Day of Rest*, and will, we believe, be devoted to religious instruction generally, without reference to cliques or classes of Christians. Information respecting matters of every-day life and importance will be sufficiently attended to by the editor to make the serial adapted for weekday as well as Sunday reading.

It seems not unlikely that under Maximilian's rule a more complete history of ancient Mexico will be given to the world than has heretofore existed. Recently an Antiquarian and Scientific Commission has been appointed, and amongst its first labours we hear that in the State of Durazo several grottoes, containing a vast number of mummies in perfect preservation, have been discovered. This is not the first time grottoes have been found in this quarter. Some of them were pillaged at the time of the Conquest, owing to the avidity of the Spaniards and the too ardent zeal of the Dominicans who undertook to convert the province; yet many escaped the profanation, and the natives continued for a long time secretly to convey the bodies of their chiefs, the descendants of the priests of Mitia and of the Zapolak kings, to these hallowed burial-places, where not only the remains of those personages have been found, but also their images made of baked clay; and it is not improbable that their records may be found there too.

From the announcements of Messrs. CHRISTIE & MANSON we learn that the drawings and sketches of the late Mr. Leech—in all, some thousands, and comprising the original designs for a great number of his famous *Punch* pictures and book illustrations—will be sold by auction in April. Some of the drawings are in water-colours. The general contents of Mr. Leech's studio will be included in the sale.

Messrs. NISBET & Co. have in preparation "A Memoir of the Rev. Richard Davis, for thirty-nine years a Missionary in New Zealand," by the Rev. John Coleman, M.A.

Messrs. LOW, SON, & MARSTON have in the press, besides novels already announced, "Captain Manners's Children," 3 vols., by Thomas Hood; and "A Mere Story," 3 vols., by the author of "Nina." The same firm also announces a new series, entitled "Templeton's Charts and Register," showing at a glance the rise and fall in the price of consols, British and foreign stocks, securities, and shares in public companies. Ten of the charts are now ready.

Mr. MURRAY adds to his late long list of announcements, "Church Politics and Church Prospects;" and "The Harvest of the Sea: an Account of British Fisheries, and of the Various Kinds of Fish useful to Man," by James G. Bertram.

Messrs. MACMILLAN add to their list of last week, "The Church of the First Days, Vol. II.—The Church of the Gentiles," by C. J. Vaughan, D.D.; "Essays in Criticism," by Matthew Arnold; "The Clever Woman of the Family," by the Author of "The Heir of Redcliffe;" "Miss Russel's Hobby: a Novel;" "Central and Eastern Arabia," by Wm. Gifford Palgrave; "Dante's Comedy—The Hell; Translated into Literal Blank Verse," by W. M. Rossetti; and "The Coal Question: an Inquiry concerning the Progress of the Question, and the Probable Exhaustion of our Coal Mines," by W. Stanley Jeavons, M.A.

Messrs. HURST & BLACKETT again announce "Beatrice," by Julia Kavanagh; and "Haunted London," by Walter Thornbury.

Mr. TRÜBNER will shortly add to his extensive catalogue of literary curiosities, "Zulu-Land, or Life Among the Zulu-Kafirs of Natal and Zulu-land, South Africa," by the Rev. Lewis Grout; "The Medical and Economical Properties of the Vegetable Substances of the Tropical Regions," by S. L. Swaab; "The Lady's French Reader," by Dr. Franz Ahn; and "Memoirs Read before the Anthropological Society of London."

Messrs. T. & T. CLARK, in addition to the works given last week, announce for early publication a new edition of Barclay's "Law of Scotland for Justices of the Peace;" and a new edition of Barclay and Glashan's "Sheriff's Court Practice."

Messrs. CHAPMAN & HALL announce a new novel, in 3 vols., entitled "Miles Buller, or the Little World of Onniegate," which will be published immediately.

Messrs. RIVINGTON, of Waterloo-place, announce for early publication "Household Theology: a Handbook of Religious Information respecting the Holy Bible, the Prayer-book, Church, Ministry, Worship, &c.," by the Rev. J. H. Blunt; "The Church on the Rock: Six Lectures on Romanism," by the Rev. J. Mason Cox, M.A.; and Virgil's *Aeneid*, Books 1—6, with English Notes, by T. Clayton, M.A., and C. A. Jerram, M.A.

The Messrs. BLACKWOOD announce, as in preparation, "Sedgely Court, a Tale," by the Author of "Fanny Hervey."

Mr. TEGG has issued the fourteenth edition of "The Readiest Reckoner ever Invented," a volume which appears to have fairly earned its name. Also, a fifth edition of "Gordon's Interest Tables at 5 per Cent."

M. HENRI PLON, printer to the Emperor, announces in the French papers that the first volume of the "Histoire de Jules César" will appear at the end of the month, simultaneously, in two sizes—one at 50 fr. a volume, and another at 10 fr.

The author of the "Pluralité des Mondes Habitées," M. C. Flammarion, has followed up that work by another, entitled "Pluralité des Existences de l'Ame." The first of these works was so successful, that five thousand copies were sold in a few weeks.

The "Epicurean" of Thomas Moore, translated by M. Henri Butat, has just been published by DENTU. A remarkable preface by Edouard Thierry, and magnificent illustrations by Gustav Doré, give this work a peculiar interest.

An important book to lawyers is now attracting attention in Paris—the "Histoire des Avocats," by M. Gaudry, already well known as a writer on such subjects.

M. Louis Ratisbonne, the translator of Dante's "Divina Commedia," has brought out a book of poetry, entitled "Les Figures Jeunes," at the house of HETZEL & Co.

The two first volumes of a curious work on Mirabeau has appeared, under the title of "Mirabeau: sa Vie, ses Opinions, et ses Discours."

The first volume of the "Histoire de Robespierre," by M. Ernest Hamel, is announced by the Librairie Internationale.